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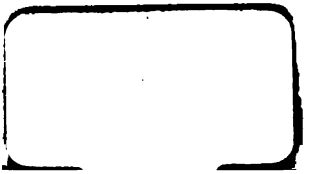

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THE

WORLD AS IT IS:

CONTAINING A

VIEW OF THE PRESENT CONDITION

OF ITS

PRINCIPAL NATIONS,

AS TO THEIR

FORMS OF GOVERNMENT—MILITARY AND NAVAL STRENGTH—REVENUES—BANKING INSTITUTIONS—PRISON DISCIPLINE—COMMERCE—RELIGION—MORALS—EDUCATION, &c. &c.

WITH

ANECDOTES OF DISTINGUISHED CHARACTERS,

AND

NUMEROUS ENGRAVINGS.

BY SAMUEL PERKINS.

NINTH EDITION.

THOMAS BELKNAP.
1848.

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INTRODUCTION.

THE object of this volume is to give a concise view of the present condition of the principal nations of the earth, embracing their population, strength, resources, forms of government, revenues, religious and moral condition, numbers of different sects, their principal tenets, character of the inhabitants, with anecdotes of distinguished individuals.

To an American, the condition of his own country, and the various steps by which it has progressed to its present state, are deeply interesting. Aside from the consideration, that the affairs of one's own country are of more consequence to him than those of other nations, the events which have taken place on this continent within the last seventy years are of immense interest to the world at large, and have an important bearing on its future destinies.

For these reasons, the United States, both collectively and severally, occupy considerable portions of the volume. It has been one object of the writer to point out the opposition which the Federal constitution met with in its incipient stages; the resistance which has, on several occasions, been made to authorities assuming to act in accordance with its provisions, and the various constructions which have been put upon the instrument, by the several departments of its administrators.

Next to the condition of his own country, the present state of the British empire is the most interesting to an American citizen. More than half of the commerce of the United States is with that nation. With her present navy, compared with that of other nations, she holds the commerce of the world at her command. It is one of the principal objects of this volume to present

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the state of this empire to the reader's view, in all its important aspects.

The southern republics, since their emancipation, have undergone so many changes, and are still in such an unsettled state, that little definite information can be given as to their boundaries, or the real character of their governments. The best view of their present condition which is obtainable, is stated in this volume, affording much matter of congratulation to the citizen of the United States, that he has escaped the difficulties with which they have been embarrassed. In relation to other nations, the writer has endeavored to collect the principal facts regarding their present condition, which may be interesting to the American reader, and to place them before him in as concise a view as their relative importance would admit

Without encumbering the work with references to all the authorities by which its statements are established, the writer would observe, that the facts given are taken from the most authentic sources, and that the accounts of travellers have been received with caution, and not fully relied on unless supported by satisfactory testimony.

The principal scenes are illustrated by a number of engravings, the object of which is to present to the reader more distinct views of the subject represented.

In the collection of such a variety of facts, some errors must unavoidably intervene, for which the writer solicits the indulgence of the public.

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THE WORLD AS IT IS.

CHAPTER I.

The Earth. Its extent. Geological divisions. Population. Average length of life. Extreme longevity. Causes favorable to longevity in the country. Diversity of color and feature. Its causes. Diversity of language. Various systems of religion. Polytheism. Sabeism. Dualism. Judaism. Christianity. Its principal Divisions. Mahometans. Estimated numbers of each. Different forms of government. Monarchy, absolute and limited. Representative Republics. Democracy.

THE EARTH. The surface of the earth is computed to contain two hundred millions of square miles, of which sixty millions, or something more than one fourth, is land. Mountains, deserts, and regions of perpetual frost constitute one third of this portion, leaving only forty millions for the sustenance and dwellings of men, averaging eighteen persons to each square mile of habitable territory. Little is or can be known relating to the internal structure of the earth, beyond the depth of a few hundred feet. Geologists have formed various conjectures with more or less probability, but with little certainty. Volcanic eruptions in different places indicate vast subterranean fires; and have led to the supposition that the whole internal matter of the earth is of a combustible nature, which will, at some future period, produce a general conflagration.

POPULATION. There are no data from which any thing approaching to a correct estimate of the whole number of the human family can be formed. The perfection to which navigation has been carried, and the extent of the researches which have been made in modern times, have brought into view countries and people unknown to Europeans in former periods. Many others, doubtless, remain for future discoveries. The highest estimate of the population of the world, is a myriad, or one thousand millions. Malte Brun, whose calculations are mostly to be relied on, assigns to

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POPULATION.

Europe, - - - - - - - - -	170,000,000
Asia, double the number, - - - - -	340,000,000
Africa, - - - - - - - - -	70,000,000
America, - - - - - - - - -	45,000,000
And to a fifth division of the world, which he calls Oceanica, embracing the Islands of the Pacific and Indian Oceans. - - - -	20,000,000
Making an aggregate of - - -	645,000,000

This may be considered a low estimate. Seven hundred millions is a mean calculation. The natural limit of human life in healthy positions, where the constitution is good, and not broken down by disease, is from seventy to ninety years, being the period at which the system wears out by natural decay. Instances of much greater longevity are not unfrequent. The oldest family of which there is an authentic account in modern times, is that of John Rovin, of Hungary, who, at the age of 172, had a wife of 164, and a younger child of 117. Of all new-born infants, one out of four dies the first year; two fifths only reach their sixth year, and before the twenty-second, one half of the generation is consigned to the grave. At this period the constitution becomes matured into manhood, and deaths are more unfrequent. The mean duration of human life is thirty years. In Europe and the United States, the average number of deaths annually, is one in forty. In Great Britain one in fifty-five. In Spain, Italy and Greece, one in thirty. In the tropical regions, one in twenty; making a general average throughout the world, of one in thirty. According to Doctor Price, an accurate English observer, the mortality in the large towns in that nation, is one in twenty annually; and in the country, one in forty. In a mountainous country in Norway, for ten successive years, one in seventy-four only died annually. The inhabitants of the country enjoy several advantages over those of cities conducive to longevity; the principal of which are pure air, more exercise, and a more sober and regular mode of living. The equality of numbers of the different sexes in all nations, clearly indicates a marriage connexion of one male with one female, as most conducive to the happiness, the good morals, and the population of any country; yet in nearly all nations except those under the influence of Christianity, polygamy, or the connexion of one man with a plurality of women, is allowed. The possessors of wealth and power, appropriate to themselves the greater number of females; the poor consequently have none. Chastity is not protected by any moral principle, but by the walls of the harem, and the guardianship of eunuchs. On the estimate of 700,000,000, as the whole number of the human race, and that the amount of one generation passes away in thirty years, sixty-four thousand persons die every day, and twenty-three millions annually.

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COLOR AND FEATURE. Of this population there is every grade of color, from the fairest European white, to the African jet black. This gradation is imperceptible, and any classification which can be made, so intermixes with the next above and below, as to be incapable of definition. The form and features are as various as the color. Although the difference between the fair European white man and the African negro is so obvious, yet in tracing this difference through its various stages, there is no point of division. Modern geographers, however, with a desire to classify every thing, have given five varieties of the human species, as to color and features: 1. The European white, embracing, besides the inhabitants of Europe, those of western Asia and northern Africa; 2. The eastern variety of Asia, comprising the Tartar, Chinese, Mongul and Hindostan races; the characteristics of which are a yellow color, black and straight hair, head almost quadrangular, face large and depressed, nose flat and small, and the chin pointed; 3. The American Indian, of a dark red, or copper color, with black and straight hair, short forehead, prominent cheek bones, and a tall and straight figure; 4. The Malay race inhabiting northern Oceanica, and a portion of eastern Asia. Their characteristics are a tawny color, head slightly sunk in, forehead bilging out, nose thick, wide and flat, the mouth large, and the upper jaw projecting. 5. The African negro, more distinctly marked than either of the others. These general classes admit of numerous subdivisions. This difference in the color and features of the human species presents two interesting questions. Are they all of one family? and to what causes is this diversity to be ascribed? The Mosaic account of the creation being admitted, it settles the first question in the affirmative. The fact, also, that the union of the sexes between the most dissimilar races, produces an offspring capable of propagation, tends to the same result. Two general causes are assigned for the difference in color, to wit, climate and manner of life. The negro exposed with little shelter to the scorching influence of the sun in the torrid zone, from one generation to another, becomes black; when removed to a more northern climate, and being more sheltered, the race in the course of time loses something of its dark shades; and on the other hand, the race of European whites residing in the torrid zone, gradually darkens. In respect to features, a third cause may be added, to wit, the different modes of treating infants and young children among different nations. The human form is capable of much alteration by different modes of treatment in infancy, and parents will endeavor to form their children upon what is considered in their own nation as the most perfect model of beauty. The Chinese, conceiving that female beauty consists in the smallness of the foot, compress that limb in their female children to such a degree, as almost to disqualify it for its proper use. In the negro race,

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flat heads and noses are marks of beauty; these are therefore compressed in infancy. Among the Indians of America, tall and straight forms are considered beautiful; their children are therefore sometimes laced on boards to produce that effect.

LANGUAGE. Another great variety in the human family respects language. Endowed with the same organization, and having the same general objects about which language is conversant, mankind have more than fifty varieties of speech, and these again admit of numerous subdivisions. It has been attempted to derive all languages from a few which are termed original, and to ascertain the common origin of nations by the similarity of their language. Admitting the human race to be of one family, all languages must be derived from one stock; and it is impossible now to ascertain which of the various modern tongues most resembles the original. Something may be known regarding the common origin of nations from similarity of language. Individuals of the same nation separating from each other, and forming distinct communities, will for a long time retain in substance the same language, while new objects and new ideas give birth to new terms, and in time, to a new language, bearing more or less resemblance to its original. The variety and perfection to which language is carried, is a sure indication of the state of civilization, and of the intelligence of any people.

The negro of Central Africa, the Hottentot, and the New Hollander have nothing in the shape of a written language by which an idea can be preserved, or be communicated to one who is absent. Their utmost attainment in this respect consists only in making some rude marks in the sand resembling the sensible object which they would describe. Their speech is confined to a few sounds expressive of the things around them, or of the passions by which they are moved. The next grade is the ancient hieroglyphic, or Egyptian picture writing. A third is the monosyllabic writing of the Chinese, and some other nations of Eastern Asia, by which a character to be expressed by a single inflection of the voice represents an object, or an operation of the mind. The highest in degree are the alphabetical written languages of the civilized world, in which arbitrary characters, under the name of letters, are arranged into words and sentences, by which any object and any operation of the mind may be expressed, and knowledge communicated to distant persons, and preserved for future generations. These languages are more or less perfect and copious, according as the intelligence of the several nations using them, have more or less ideas to be expressed. They are constantly improving as knowledge extends itself and new objects occur.

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RELIGION.

RELIGION. In surveying the present condition of the world, one of the most interesting subjects of inquiry is its various systems of religion. All nations, whatever may be their grade of intelligence, have some notions respecting invisible beings superior in power to man, and influencing his affairs; and also of an existence beyond the present life. This may be said to be universal; if there be any atheists, they are too few to be noticed, or scarcely to form an exception to the general principle. The various modes in which nations express this belief, form so many different religions, and their acts in consequence of their faith, constitute their worship. All attempts to produce an uniformity in either, have been as fruitless as would be an attempt to produce a uniformity in color or feature. Persecution in the various forms in which it has appeared, has produced hypocrites, but never made a proselyte. While the universality of the belief proves the existence of the principle, the great variety of forms in which it appears, should lead to the exercise of an extensive charity. The peculiarities of the different systems will be noticed under the heads of the different nations embracing them.

The term Polytheism is given to every system of religion which admits the existence of several gods, whatever may be the nature or dignity assigned to each. In this extensive sense it embraces all the ancient religions except the Jewish, and all the modern, except the Jewish and the Christian. The lowest grade, and one of the most extensive divisions of Polytheism, is *Fetichism*, or the worship of Fetiche, embracing all sorts of animate or inanimate beings, which the priests of this religion hold out to their followers as possessed of some magical or supernatural power. *Sabeism*, or the worship of the heavenly bodies, either separately or altogether, holds a more elevated rank—is spread over considerable portions of the earth, and is blended with most other superstitions. *Pantheism* supposes that every thing which exists is penetrated with the divine Spirit, and is the object of worship, so that no one, be his particular god what it may, can be mistaken, or worship that which is not God. *Dualism* supposes the existence of two gods, one the author of all good, and the other of all evil, and both the objects of worship, one to obtain favor, and the other to avert evil. In nearly all religions is to be found a principle of fear, or apprehension, that a person's future condition will be rendered unhappy in consequence of bad actions in the body; and of hope, or expectation that it will be bettered by good deeds. The nature and quality of the actions supposed to be good, vary according to the views of different nations. Some suppose that to slay an enemy and devour his flesh, is a highly meritorious act; others that a pilgrimage to some sacred place, or to the temple of some divinity, propitiates the divine favor. The belief is nearly universal, in all, except protestant Christian countries, that penance, bodily pain, or suffering voluntarily inflicted in

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this life, atones for transgressions here, and is a powerful means of securing future happiness.

Amid all the ingenious errors, or fanciful and absurd dreams of ancient superstitions, truth was silently disclosing the right way. The Jews acknowledged the absolute unity and perfections of God; and Christianity, for the introduction of which the Jewish scriptures prepared the way, sprang up and gradually shed its benign and liberal influence over the most civilized countries, and in all quarters of the world. Its principal divisions are the Roman church, denominated Catholic, because it is supposed by its own adherents, to comprehend all true Christians. The Greek church, (extending over Russia and Greece, and embracing the Christians tolerated in the Ottoman empire,) differing principally from the Roman, in not admitting the supremacy of the Bishop of Rome. The Protestant church, comprehending a considerable portion of Western Europe, and the United States. These general divisions embrace a great variety of subordinate ones.

After Christianity had been established about six hundred years, Mahometanism, a confused mixture of Judaism, Christianity and Paganism, sprang up. It was propagated by the sword, and now extensively prevails in the eastern continent, but has never reached the western. It is impossible to speak with precision as to the numbers belonging to each religion. The following is given as nearly approaching the truth, with the remark, that the numbers embrace the whole population of the country where the religion prevails, or where it is the religion of the State.

Roman Catholics,	116,000,000
Greek Church,	70,000,000
Protestants,	42,000,000
Jews,	5,000,000
Mahometans,	110,000,000
Paganism in its various forms,	357,000,000
	700,000,000

GOVERNMENT. The world is not more diversified in its original elements, or in the feature, color, language or religions of its inhabitants, than in its civil policy, or various modes in which men are restrained in their actions, one towards another. The ties which unite husband and wife, and parent and child, form the family or domestic society, and originally constituted an independent patriarchal government. The relation of master and servant commenced in this state. The weak not being able to assert their rights, or procure subsistence, naturally sought the protection of the strong, and in return yielded their obedience or service. This is the earliest stage of society of which there is any account, and constituted the civil policy of the ancestors of the Jews previous to Moses. Families after quarrelling

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awhile, would find it best to live in harmony, under certain regulations, or laws, and also to unite for their common defence; it was soon found, that a physical power was necessary to enforce the laws and afford protection. This necessity produced what may be properly termed a government. The convention, either express or implied, which fixes the original laws of civil society, constitutes the social compact; and that which determines in what manner and by whom it shall be carried into effect, is called a constitution. These for the most part are unwritten, and have no other foundation than the silent acquiescence of the governors and governed. Forms of government are numerous, and not capable of exact definition, one description running into another; forming a compound, and progressing from a pure democracy through various and almost imperceptible degrees, to absolute despotism. The great political question which has agitated the public mind for half a century, is whether all legitimate power is derived from the people, and to be exercised for their good; or whether there is a royal race having a divine, indefeasible, hereditary right to govern, independent of the people, and without accountability? It would seem that the mere propounding the question would lead to an affirmative answer to the first alternative, but nine tenths of mankind now act upon the latter.

Pure democracy, where the people exercise the powers of government in their collective capacity, however it may have existed in some ancient republics, is not now to be found, except in certain small tribes of savages. A representative democracy or republic, where the people exercise all the powers of government by agents of their own choice for limited periods, affords the most perfect freedom consistent with the preservation of society, and can be successfully carried into effect only where the people possess virtue and intelligence enough to select wise and honest agents. The love of power is so universal and so innate in the human system, that it may be considered as a general principle, subject to few exceptions, that persons having once become possessed of it, will retain it as long as possible. It possesses also an intoxicating quality, leading an individual to believe, however incompetent he may really be, that he can administer the government better than any others; thence have arisen aristocracies, monarchies, and despotisms, by which much the greater part of the human family are now governed. Monarchies are either constitutional or absolute; the former, where the people by their representatives have a voice in the enactment of laws, and some control over the executive authority, the latter where they have none. The absolute monarchies of Europe may again be distinguished from the despotisms of the Ottoman Empire and Asia. In the former, the monarch rules by fixed principles; in the latter, the lives and property of

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the subject are at the disposal of the despot, without limitation or restraint.

A knowledge of the extent of the habitable globe has been constantly increasing. For the first three thousand years, Ethiopia in the south, and the Persian or Chaldean Empire in the east, was supposed to be its farthest limits. Another thousand years elapsed, and the Romans extended their knowledge and their conquests to western Europe and Africa. Fifteen hundred years afterwards, America was discovered; and at the close of the eighteenth century, improved navigation has brought into view New Holland, and such a number of other islands in the Pacific and Indian oceans as to constitute a fifth division of the world.

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CHAPTER II.

Europe. Its extent and boundaries. Population. Feudal system. Principles of its government. State religion. Standing armies. Public debt, and revenue. Balance of power. Great Britain. Extent and population of the British empire. Number of ships, and seamen employed in its commerce. Imports and exports. Public debt and revenue. Army and Navy. Government. Meaning of the term constitution, as applied to Great Britain. Parliament; how it originated. Its constituent parts. Magna charta. Bill of rights. Powers of the king and the Parliament. Judiciary. Courts of Chancery. Trial by jury. Habeas corpus. Different ranks. Landlord and tenant. Condition of the operatives. Ecclesiastical establishments; number of clergy. Tithes. Dissenters. Universities and schools. Sunday schools. Newspapers and periodicals. Penny Magazine. Canals; rail roads; turnpikes. Tunnel under the Thames. City of London, its extent and population. Canaille of London. Liverpool. Manchester. William IV.; his character; anecdotes of him. The succession. Victoria. Scotland; its connection with England. The presbyterian church. Literature. Face of the country. Lowlands. Highlands. Islands. Character of its inhabitants. Ireland. Its connection with England. Ecclesiastical establishment. Number of different denominations. Catholic emancipation law. Opposition to the collection of tithes. Peasantry. Claims of the Roman catholics. Irish manufacture. Bogs. Dublin. Jersey and Guernsey. Heligoland. Gibraltar. Its situation and strength. Malta. Ionian islands. Sierra Leone. St. Helena. Confinement and death of Bonaparte. Cape of Good Hope. Isle of France. East Indies. East India company; when formed. Extent of its possessions and manner of acquiring them. Religion of Hindostan; their gods, priests, and temples. Image and car of Juggernaut. Its passage from the temple to the garden house. Self immolation. Suttees. Number of widows burned. Abolition of the Suttee. Other acts of self immolation. Hindoo castes. Bramin soldiers; merchants. Sudras or servants. Burren sunkers or outcasts, their condition. Ceylon. The cinnamon tree. New Holland. Van Dieman's land. Mixed population of convicts and voluntary emigrants. Natives. British West Indies. Number and character of their inhabitants. Trade with the United States; how managed; how counteracted. Abolition of slavery in the British West Indies. British North American colonies. Their extent, population, and government. Chief towns. Canadian troubles. Disputes between the United States and Great Britain respecting their boundaries, and the navigation of the St. Lawrence. Welland and Rideau canals. General remarks.

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EUROPE. Europe is the smallest of the three sections into which the eastern continent is divided. It is bounded on three sides by the waters of the Arctic or Frozen ocean, by the Atlantic, and by the Mediterranean. On the east it is separated from Asia by the waters of the Caspian and Black seas, and the straits by which the latter communicates with the Mediterranean. North of the Caspian sea there are no definite boundaries between Europe and Asia; none are necessary, as the dominions of Russia extend in that region over both quarters. Geographers have, for the sake of distinction, run an imaginary line along the river Ural, from its mouth in the Caspian sea, to its source on the Ural mountains, and along these mountains to the Arctic ocean.

Its greatest extent from east to west is 3500 miles; and from north to south, 2500, betweed 36° and 71° north latitude. Its superficies is estimated at 3,000,000 square miles, and its number of inhabitants at something more than 230,000,000, averaging seventy-six to the square mile. Though the smallest in extent, and second in number, yet in its riches, power, improvements in the arts, and in its influence on the condition of the world, it is far the most important of any quarter of the globe.

FEUDAL SYSTEM. From whence the name of Europe is derived, or from what nation it was first settled, history furnishes no authentic record. Its first inhabitants are supposed to have emigrated from Asia, the cradle of the human family, at a very early period. The first information that history affords, is that a colony of Hellenes or Greeks settled in the south of Europe, about 1400 years before the Christian era. That this colony was the source of all the learning and arts, for which Greece and Rome were afterwards celebrated. That it continued to flourish and extend its influence over the surrounding nations for upwards of a thousand years, and was finally conquered by the Roman arms.

The Roman empire, which at one time overspread the world, was in its turn overrun by hordes of barbarians from the north of Europe. Its conquest extinguished the lights of science, and brought on a period designated in history by the name of the dark ages, extending from the fourth to the fourteenth century, and noted for ignorance, barbarity, and despotism. The present governments of Europe originated in this period, and took their character, in a great measure, from the events attending the extinction and conquest of the Roman empire. In that conquest, the chief, or leader, was considered as the proprietor of the whole territory, which was parcelled out to his officers, in greater or less quantities, according to their rank, for which they were bo und to serve him a certain number of days in war, with a number of men proportioned to the magnitude of the grant. The high officers parcelled out different portions of the territory

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to their inferior officers and soldiers, on the same conditions, reserving for the support of themselves, their families, and immediate dependants, so much as they deemed necessary, under the name of demesne lands, for their own occupation. In this manner a complete military organization was formed for the purposes of defence or conquest, called the Feudal System. The grants were hereditary and indivisible, descending to the oldest male heir, and when there was none of sufficient age to perform the requisite service, the custody and use of the property reverted to the donor during the minority.

The power of the king, emperor, or under whatever name the chief was designated, was absolute, and his title as inviolable as the title to any private property. The whole constituted one system. The immediate grantees of the king were styled lords, and the different titles of nobility generally regulated by the extent of their fiefs or grants. They are considered as of a higher order, and as possessing certain rights, privileges, and immunities different from the people. One of their principal duties, that of advising the king, which in reality gave them an important influence in the government, was considered as a burdensome service. These distinctions, privileges, and duties, which constituted them an order of nobility, were also hereditary and indivisible. Below these were the common people, of little estimation, and possessing no share in the government. As wealth accumulated in the hands of private citizens, they became of more consideration, and the rigid features of the feudal system relaxed.

The history of Europe presents a constant struggle on the part of kings to maintain and enlarge their prerogatives, on the part of the nobility, or privileged orders, to preserve their immunities and on the part of the people, to acquire consideration and influence. This struggle has resulted in a few instances in the establishment of small republics, differing from one another, and falling far short of the principle of civil liberty as understood in the American republics. In others it has resulted in establishing what are called constitutional monarchies, where the people by their representatives have some share in the enactment of laws. In others, the principles of absolutism have remained with little amelioration.

COMMON PRINCIPLES. Some of the doctrines common to all the European monarchies, are, that all kings, whatever may be the number of their subjects, are of equal rank or grade; that royal blood must not be mixed, or contaminated with that of any inferior order; that when one of the royal family wants a partner, he must seek one, not in the nation of which he is a prince, or sovereign, but from some foreign royal family; that the sovereigns have a right to parcel out, and dispose of particular territories, to individuals, without regard to the rights or wishes of

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the people; and that the dignity of royal blood must be supported by adequate salaries raised from the people.

The number of reigning families now in Europe is fifty-five, the number of their subjects varying from 100,000 to 50,000,000. The younger branches who by possibility may inherit a throne, are estimated at 1200, and their appendage, or sum annually given to support their royal dignity, at $50,000,000.

STATE RELIGION. Another principle common to all European nations, until a very late period, is that there must be a state religion, for the support of which government must provide, to which all must contribute, and all who hold office must conform. As a matter of favor, permission is allowed to worship in some other form than that prescribed by the government, which is called toleration, and is more or less restricted in different nations. The religions established by the several governments of Europe, are the Catholic, embracing 120,000,000 inhabitants; the protestant, 50,000,000; the Greek Church, 40,000,000; and the Mahometan, 8,000,000. The number of Jews tolerated, or treated with more or less severity in different nations, are estimated at 1,500,000; and the number of pagans at 40,000.

The number of universities in Europe, for instruction in the highest branches of education, is eighty-five; and the number of living writers in France, Germany and Great Britain, are estimated at 12,000.

STANDING ARMIES. The number of troops kept in constant pay, constituting what is called the standing armies of Europe, vary from two to four millions, according as the nations are more or less at war; the lowest peace establishment being in the proportion of one soldier to 100 inhabitants. The professed object of these standing armies, is the defence of each nation against aggression or invasion from its neighbors, but a more constant and common use of them is to preserve the monarchical system, and to hold the people in subjection. The number of ships of war in time of peace is 1300, of which Great Britain has one half.

For a long period the principle of maintaining the balance of power was the favorite topic with European politicians, and the occasion of frequent wars. Its professed object was to prevent any one nation from gaining such an ascendency as to endanger others. The subject was more of a speculative, than of a practical nature, and incapable of any definite principles. Bonaparte annihilated it, and but for his disastrous Russian campaign would have brought the whole of continental Europe under his sway.

PUBLIC DEBT. The whole amount of public debt owing by the different nations of Europe, and originating principally in their wars, is estimated at $5,000,000,000, averaging twenty-

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five dollars to each inhabitant; and the annual revenue raised from the people, at $65,000,000, being three dollars and twenty-five cents to each person. The States owing the largest debts have long since ceased to take any measures to extinguish the principal, their utmost exertions being limited to the payment of the interest, and the current expenses of government. This vast debt, of which the figures expressing it give no definite idea of the amount, being due from the public to its own citizens, does not diminish the general wealth of Europe, or detract from its physical force.

GREAT BRITAIN. The island of Great Britain is in the northern Archipelago, between latitude 50° and 59° north, in length 580 miles, and varying in breadth from 370 to 50 miles. It is separated from the continent by the English channel, thirty miles in width at its narrowest point, between Calais and Dover. Its superficies is computed at 87,000 square miles, and its inhabitants to exceed 150 to the square mile. This island, which in point of size ranks in the second class, by the enterprize of its inhabitants, the vigor of its institutions, and the perfection of its arts, extends its dominion, and the influence of its industry, to the extremities of the globe. The great number and dispersed situation of its colonies, which would ruin any other nation, form the basis of the wealth and power of the British empire. They supply the mother country with the raw material, and an immense market for her manufactures, and are the foundation of a commerce more extensive and diversified than that of all Europe besides. This commerce employs 170,000 seamen, 25,000 ships, with a tonnage of 2,500,000. The value of its annual imports exceed 200,000,000. They consist of three classes, the raw material for her manufactures, foreign articles for consumption, comprising only such as do not come in competition with her own productions, and articles of every description for exportation. Goods of every kind are allowed to be imported and warehoused, that is, stored under the inspection of government officers, without the payment of duties, whence they may be taken at pleasure, for exportation, and in case they are not prohibited articles, may be used for domestic consumption on the payment of duties. The quantity of wool annually imported exceeds 30,000,000 of pounds. The annual production of the manufacturing industry of the kingdom is estimated at $5,000,000,000, consisting principally in articles from wool, cotton, iron and leather. The exports in domestic productions amount annually to $235,000,000; and of foreign and colonial merchandize to $45,000,000. The annual revenue amounts to $245,000,000, and the expenditure, in time of peace, to something short of that sum.

The following is an estimate of the population of the British Empire according to the most recent enumerations.

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ARMY AND NAVY.

England and Wales,			15,906,829
Scotland,			2,628,957
Ireland,			7,767,401
Islands in the British seas,			103,710
Army, Navy, &c.,			277,017
Total of the United Kingdom,			26,683,914
Colonies and dependencies in Europe,			140,354
do.	do.	North America,	1,471,473
do.	do.	West Indies,	891,066
do.	do.	Asia,	1,157,042
do.	do.	Africa,	288,623
do.	do.	Australia,	123,289
Possessions and dependencies of the E. India Co.			123,301,000
Total of the British Empire,			154,056,751

The Ionian Islands are under the British protection. Pop. 208,100; extent, 1,098 square miles.

The kingdom of Hanover with a population of 1,500,000 does not belong to the British empire, but to the male line of the royal family.

The British power extends over two thirds of the globe in reference to longitude, and in latitude from the Arctic circle to 33° south, so that it may be said with truth that the sun always shines upon some part of the possessions of Great Britain, and the four seasons of the year are enjoyed at the same time in her dominions.

The funded debt of Great Britain amounts to about four thousand millions of dollars. This immense debt bears an interest of from three to four and a half per cent. It originated soon after the accession of William the third, stadtholder of Holland, to the English throne; and in consequence of wars in which England had no interest. This was a natural consequenee of importing a king from abroad. William's affections were all in favor of his native subjects. The wars undertaken by him, and in which he involved the English nation, were all for the interest of Holland. Lest his new subjects should complain of the heavy taxes necessary to carry on these wars, he resorted to loans; and from that period wars have been generally carried on by the same means. No provision having been made for the extinguishment of the principal, the debt has gradually accumulated to its present amount. It has often been predicted that this debt would bring on a national bankruptcy, accompanied by a revolution. But so long as the government is able to provide for the interest, its credit is good, and money may be borrowed to any amount.

ARMY AND NAVY. In 1815, at the close of the long European war, the army immediately belonging to the British government amounted to 640,000 men; the whole number in British

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pay exceeded 1,000,000. The navy included more than 1000 ships of war, manned by 184,000 seamen. Since that period, Great Britain has enjoyed an uninterrupted peace, and her military and naval forces have undergone material reductions. The army now consists of a little less than 100,000 men. The East India company maintain a force of upwards of 200,000 in their possessions. The British navy since its reduction, consists of 610 vessels of war, of which 131 are of the line, or seventy-four guns and over, 149 frigates, and 330 small vessels; of these only 180 are in commission, or actual service. The officers and men attached to the naval establishment, are 180 admirals, 487 captains, and 30,000 seamen. The annual expense of the navy is $25,165,782, and of the army on the peace establishment, $35,893,146.

CONSTITUTION. This empire, the most powerful in the world, is directed by a central government, established at London, consisting of the Monarch and Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. To an American citizen, the term *constitution*, imports a written instrument creating a government, and defining its powers. In this sense no such thing as a constitution exists in Great Britain. The term, however, is applied to express the British system of civil policy, and in this application it means those fundamental principles and usages, which cannot be abrogated, or essentially altered, without destroying the system. In the British constitution, the principle that all power is derived from the people, and to be exercised by agents of their appointment, and for their benefit, and accountable to them, is reversed. All power is supposed to be vested in, or derived from, the king; that he holds it by divine hereditary right, that it belongs as much to him and his heirs, as any private possession; that he is irresponsible, accountable to no tribunal for his actions, and beyond the reach of law; and that all the privileges and immunities which the people enjoy, are free gifts, received from his munificence. The English government in its early stages was strictly feudal, with all the appendages of that system. In the course of years it gradually ameliorated into a limited constitutional monarchy. The process by which this has been effected, has been so gradual, that historians have not been able to give the precise period, nor to point out the time when the name of parliament was first given to the meetings of the lords and commons. It is, indeed, as undefinable as the precise time when the child becomes a man.

MAGNA CHARTA. Two periods are mentioned when important changes took place in the English system of government; one in 1215, when Magna Charta was obtained from king John, at the point of the sword, by his refractory barons. This instru-

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ment, which has been dignified by the name of a charter, and styled the palladium of English liberty, contains a few of the general principles of civil liberty, and several stipulations by which the king agrees not to infringe on the rights of the barons, and not to injure or oppress his subjects. Its forced renewal at several times from other monarchs, as well as its frequent violations, show the estimation in which it has been held by those whose power it was intended to limit. The other period, called the revolution, was in 1688, when the two houses of parliament declared the throne vacant, by the abdication, as it was termed, though more properly the expulsion of James the second, and invited William, prince of Orange, who in his own right had no pretensions to the crown, to take possession of it in conjunction with his wife, the daughter of James. This invitation was accompanied with what was called a petition, or bill of rights, in which the elected monarch stipulated by his acceptance of it, that his new subjects should enjoy certain privileges and immunities, which had been before claimed, but which were until then, undefined, and frequently violated. From that period, the government may be considered as established on the foundation on which it has ever since rested. The king possesses the power of summoning, proroguing, and dissolving parliament at pleasure. The latter, however, took care to secure to themselves an annual session, by limiting their grants of money to one year; and an act has been passed, which is considered as making a part of the constitution, that there should be a new parliament at least once in seven years. For a long time a succession of kings exercised the power of issuing proclamations, enjoining on their subjects acts inconsistent with the laws of parliament; the proclamations containing a clause, ordering the acts to be done, any law of parliament to the contrary notwithstanding. This abrogating power was resisted by parliament at different times, with various success, and has, at later periods, been reluctantly abandoned. The usurpation of Cromwell is not here noticed as producing any change in the English constitution, because after a bloody civil war, consummated by the destruction of the kingly authority, and the judicial condemnation, and execution of the reigning monarch, January, 1649, and after a submission of a few years to a despotic power in the hands of an individual, the nation gladly threw themselves back into the hands of the legitimate heir of the monarch whom they had put to death, without any restrictions, or even providing for the amnesty of the principal agents of the revolution.

The leading features of the British constitution, as it has thus grown up, and become perfected, are, that the king is the supreme executive power, having the prerogatives of making war and peace, raising armies, building navies, making all appointments to office, of creating peers at pleasure, and conferring on

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them the right to a seat in the house of lords, of coining money, and of negativing acts of parliament. In practice, however, this last power is seldom exercised. The king, though aided by the councils of the ablest ministers, very rarely sets up his will in opposition to the wishes of the people as expressed by their representatives. The king's person is inviolable. He can do no wrong; all the misdeeds of his government are chargeable upon his ministers, whom he chooses and dismisses at pleasure. It is high treason to attempt his death. These powers and prerogatives are hereditary, and descend to the eldest son, and in default of male issue of the reigning monarch, to the eldest female. The daughter of the eldest son, deceased, inherits in preference to younger brothers. In default of issue of the last reigning monarch, a successor is sought among the issue of his immediate predecessor on the same principle.

The legislative power is vested in parliament in the most unrestricted sense. It acts not only in the ordinary subjects of legislation, but does many things appertaining to a constituent, rather than a legislative assembly; such as regulating the descent of the crown, changing the succession, appointing a regent, and defining his authority; regulating the period for which the parliament itself is elected; the qualifications of electors; taking away the right of representation from some boroughs, and bestowing it upon others, and increasing or diminishing the representation at pleasure. Possessing the powers both of a legislative and a constituent body, parliament is said to be omnipotent, doing what it thinks the good of the nation requires, without questioning its own powers, or allowing any one else so to do, without incurring the guilt of rebellion. Its laws must be such, however, as the general sense of the nation approves, or they will be disregarded. Severe laws have been enacted against bribery at elections, yet it is not unfrequent for a single candidate and his friends, to spend large sums on these occasions. Parliament have directly no voice in making war or peace, raising armies, building navies, or in making or ratifying treaties, yet holding the purse-strings of the nation, they have a controlling power over all these subjects. Not a dollar can be raised for any of these purposes, except by a bill originating in the house of commons, and concurred in by the house of lords, without alteration. Hence executive proceedings are freely discussed, and the conduct of ministers often censured in the most unqualified terms, while his majesty, the chief executive officer, is inaccessible, except through the medium of his ministers.

The parliament of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, is composed of two branches, a house of commons, and a house of lords. The commons consists of 658 members, 500 for England and Wales, 105 for Ireland, and 53 for Scotland; the number of representatives is very unequally proportioned,

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England having more than twice as many in proportion to its numbers, as the other parts of the empire.

The house of lords consists, first of the English peerage sitting individually by virtue of their nobility, amounting to 391; a representation of the peerage of Ireland, of twenty-eight members, and sixteen from Scotland; these form the temporal lords; secondly, the lords spiritual, consisting of the episcopacy of England, to wit, two archbishops and twenty-four bishops, and a representation from the protestant episcopacy of Ireland, consisting of four prelates. Whole number of members, 465; both houses forming a legislative body of 1123 members. In addition to their general powers as legislatory, the house of lords form a high court of impeachment, to try and punish the officers of government for official misconduct; and also constitute a court to try members of their own order, for any crimes. The lords temporal, assisted by the judges, form a court for the correction of the errors of the highest judicial tribunals.

JUDICIAL POWER. The judicial power is vested in three high courts, consisting of four judges each, and having concurrent jurisdiction in all civil matters; and in a great number of inferior municipal courts. The queen's bench, the highest of the three superior courts, has both civil and criminal jurisdiction. Each judge of the superior courts, forms a court of nisi prius, for the trial of issues in fact, in the counties where the causes of action arise, for which purpose particular circuits are allotted to the several judges. They hold their offices during good behavior, and are selected from the most eminent jurists in the kingdom; and together form the court of exchequer chamber for the correction of errors. In the appointments to these high judicial stations, neither party spirit nor favoritism seems to have found a place. The judges have often been found to be salutary checks upon the attempts of government, to encroach on the rights of the subject.

The court of chancery is an important branch of English jurisprudence. It had its origin rather in accident, than in any preconceived notions of the utility of such an institution. In the early periods of the English government, in order to rid himself of the troublesome importunities of his subjects, the king appointed an almoner, whose office it was to dispense the royal charities to the people. Frequent applications were made not only for direct bounty, but also for the mitigation of the law, where the complainant supposed that its rigid enforcement did him injustice. Such cases were also referred to the almoner, with instructions to inquire into each case, and give the relief which justice required. His proceeding at length became regulated by certain rules; and the chief almoner became the king's chancellor, appointed during his pleasure. In this manner a system of chancery proceedings grew up, designed to do

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substantial justice between subjects where the law would operate injuriously. The lord chancellor is one of the highest offices in the government, and by virtue of his office presides in the house of lords.

The English system of jurisprudence, the boast of that nation, has been matured by a long course of practice. It secures to the subject the free enjoyment of his legal rights, and his possessions, and assures to him satisfaction for injuries. This perfect security in the enjoyment of personal liberty, and the acquisition of industry, is the great stimulus to exertion, and a principal cause of national wealth. An outline of the system will not be attempted; two features, only of peculiar excellence, and which distinguish it from the systems of continental Europe, will be mentioned, trial by jury, and the habeas corpus.

Every question of fact, whether relating to civil or criminal jurisprudence, is to be inquired into and determined by a jury of twelve disinterested men of the neighborhood where it is alleged to have been done, under the direction of an enlightened judge. The court then apply the law as previously established, to the fact thus ascertained. By the writ of habeas corpus, every person who is restrained of his liberty for whatever cause, or however mean his condition, may call the person holding him in custody, before one of the judges in the highest national court, by whom the cause of his detention will be inquired into; and if it is found not to be warranted by some existing law, he will be discharged. The benefits of this writ belong to every person on British ground. An African slave, being brought into England by his American master, obtained his freedom by this process; lord Mansfield declaring, that slavery was contrary to the common law of the realm. Had Napoleon landed in England, or been brought within the jurisdiction of its courts, after the close of the war with France in 1816, he might have availed himself of this process, and there being no law authorizing his detention after the peace, he must have been set at liberty. Under the apprehension of such an event, the commander of the ship, who had him in custody, was ordered not to approach within three leagues of the shore.

England comprehends all the southern portion of the island, as far north as the river Tweed; and contains a population of thirteen millions. The principality of Wales on its western border is included in this general description; though often separately named, there is no political distinction between them. In noticing the present condition of England, the first thing which strikes an American observer, is the division of its inhabitants into two distinct orders, nobles and commons. This distinction, a relic of the feudal system, has for a long time been gradually wearing away. Commoners now enjoy many of the highest offices of government. Rank and family have given

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place to talent. A nobleman now has only two distinctive privileges, a seat in the house of lords, and the right of trial by his peers, instead of a jury of commoners.

Another distinctive feature in England, is that the greater part of the land is in the occupancy of a tenantry, and not of the proprietors of the soil, creating the relation of landlord and tenant between a great proportion of the inhabitants. As a general remark, the rents, taxes, and tithes, take most of the productions of the soil, and leave but a scanty support for the tenant and his family, and for the wages of labor. As a necessary consequence, the actual laborer, or operative as he is called, receives but a small pittance for his services. Labor, as well agricultural as manufacturing, is at the lowest point that will subsist the laborer. Another result which an American would expect, is that the tenanted land would be poorly cultivated, and become impoverished; but such is not the fact.

The leases are generally for such a length of time, as enables the tenant in a good degree to enjoy the benefits of his improvements. He has generally a well grounded expectation of a renewal of his lease on favorable terms. Labor is cheap, and he is obliged to improve all his land to the utmost advantage, in order to pay the charges upon it. Few countries are in a higher state of cultivation than England. Another result is that the landlords being the law makers, have provided the process of distress for the recovery of rents in arrear. This process, unknown in the collection of any other species of debt, enables the landlord to seize, without any previous suit, upon any property found on the premises, no matter who is the owner, and hold it as security for all his back rents, or convert it into money by sale, for their payment.

The people of England are divided, to a greater extent than is common in many other countries, into rich and poor. One cause is the principle of primogeniture, a relic of the feudal system, by which many great landed estates have descended indivisible for ages to the eldest heir. Some of these yield a revenue much beyond many of the small principalities of Germany, and may justly be styled princely. The duke of Bridgewater's is one of the largest. Another cause is to be found in the successful prosecutions of commerce and manufactures, much beyond any other nation. Here is an accumulation of wealth beyond any thing which can contribute to the comfort or convenience of the possessor.

On the other side of the picture is presented the operatives, by whose hands this wealth is acquired, embracing more than half the population of the kingdom, laboring from twelve to fourteen hours a day, for the merest pittance that will support human life. The operative is not in terms the slave of the master manufacturer, but being absolutely dependent on him for employment and bread, he has no will but that of his employer,

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both body and mind are subject to his control. The English operative is neither so well fed or supported as the slave of the southern planter; and it is computed that the slave labor of the south costs the planter fifty per cent. more than the same amount costs the English manufacturer. The latter without any expense or hazard of capital, gets his labor for what will very scantily yield a present support to the operative; and when age, sickness, or infirmity, prevents labor, he is discharged, and thrown upon the parish. The planter has the capital laid out in the purchase of his slave, always at a hazard, and constantly wasting, and with the loss of interest; has to support him while he labors, and for his own interest this support must be sufficiently expensive to be comfortable; and when the slave becomes incapable of labor, is burthened with his support. English philanthropists who exclaim on every occasion so loudly against African slavery in the United States, would do well to devote a part of their sympathies at least, to the relief of the miserable operatives in their manufactories. That benevolence which seeks its objects in distant countries, leaving more interesting ones at home unprovided for, may well be doubted.*

Ecclesiastical Establishment. The English ecclesiastical establishment, or hierarchy, as it is called, consists of the king as supreme head of the church, of two archbishops, twenty-four bishops, sixty archdeans, twenty-seven deans, and 544 canons and prebends; these amounting to 661 officers, are called dignitaries of the church, having the oversight of its general con-

* The foregoing remark is occasioned by the following fact. A distinguished clergyman of the United States, on a visit to England in the spring of 1833, attended a meeting of the London Missionary Society, and being called upon to state the condition of similar institutions in the United States, gave a favorable account of the exertions in the same cause in America; supposing at least that he had done no dishonor to his country, he sat down; and was followed by Mr. Hamilton, a clergyman from Leeds, who after a few remarks on the subject before the meeting, expressed his surprize and regret that the speaker from the United States had said nothing on the subject of slavery, and uttered a violent phillippic against the practice; against the people of the United States for suffering it in any part of the nation; and against the speaker for passing over it in silence. The American clergyman, somewhat astonished at the attack, after expressing his surprize at the introduction of this subject on such an occasion, and the uncourteous manner in which he and his country had been treated, remarked, that whatever of sin or guilt there was in the practice, which he was not disposed to extenuate, it was derived from Great Britain, and that she then still indulged it on her plantations; and proposed to his brother from Leeds, to find, if he could, a mantle large enough to cover the sins of the country of their common ancestors, and he would cheerfully assist in throwing it over them. Leeds, it should be remembered, is one of the principal manufacturing towns in the north of England, and the seat of the woollen manufacture in that quarter. Had the reverend gentleman who represented the philanthropists of that town, stepped into one of the manufactories near his own door, he might have found among its operatives subjects enough for the exercise of his benevolence, without crossing the Atlantic in search of them.

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cerns without the burden of parochial duties. There are 17,340 rectors, vicars, chaplains and curates, to whom is especially assigned the care of souls, that is, the duty of parish instruction. The whole number of the clergy of the state is 18,000. The archbishops are appointed by the king. The bishops are elected by the dean and chapter of the cathedral of the see; by virtue of a writ of conge deliere proceeding from the king as supreme head of the church, directing them on a vacancy to proceed to the choice of a bishop, and naming the person they must choose. The parochial or working clergy are ordained by the bishop, and by him installed, or appointed over particular parishes, the right of presentation to which, is, in many instances, in individuals, the inhabitants seldom having a voice in the selection.

This ecclesiastical body is principally supported by tithes, or one tenth part of the annual productions of land and labor. Where no modus or arrangement is made, the occupant of a farm is obliged to set out, and leave upon the land, in a proper state to be carried away, one tenth part of the crop, and the steward of the clergyman takes it off. Tithes are more generally commuted for money, at a sum considerably less than their real value. A modus, or commutation of tithe having been once established, binds the parties thereafter, and cannot be altered except by mutual consent. The tithe, whether in kind, or by substitute, is divided between the officiating clergymen and the higher dignitaries of the church.

The institution of tithes was originally no part of the Christian system, and was unknown in the church until about the middle of the fourth century; when, it having become the religion of the state in several nations, the clergy, calling themselves priests, a word never used in the Bible as designating preachers of the gospel, claimed tithes as of divine right from the Mosaic law. In reforming the errors of popery in England, this was too valuable a one to be relinquished, and was retained by the protestant episcopal church.

The tithe is to be paid by all English subjects, whatever may be their religious tenets. Many of the English churches have large endowments in addition to tithe. The whole annual income of the English national church is set down at $34,000,000, of which the archbishop of Canterbury has $120,000, the other bishops vary from 70 to $15,000. The whole sum annually paid to the two archbishops and twenty-four bishops, is $900,000, averaging about $33,000 to each. The remainder, divided among 17,974 officiating clergymen and dignitaries, gives an average of $1800 to each, and if equally distributed, might afford a competent support to all; but one half of the number being dignitaries and incumbents of rich livings, take more than three fourths of the whole amount, leaving to the poor curates, and the great body of the actually laboring clergy, a scanty support,

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in some instances not exceeding $200 a year. The whole number of places of public worship are 11,743; the number of non-resident parochial clergy, who supply their places by hired curates, are 5037. The population belonging to the established church, computing all who are not professed dissenters, is six millions.

The number of congregations of dissenters, comprising the remaining half of the population, are,

Methodists,	2401
Independents,	1289
Baptists,	938
Quakers,	397
Roman Catholics,	588
Presbyterians,	258
Total,	*5571

The foundation on which this superstructure is raised, is, that religion is necessary for the support of government, and that the patronage and support of the government is necessary for the preservation of the Christian religion. Hence the union of church and state, consisting in the government's providing for the support of ecclesiastical establishments, and they in turn, rendering themselves subservient to the views of the government.

The experience of more than half a century in the United States, has shown that a nation may be powerful and happy, and its government stable, without the aid of a religious establishment, and that the Christian religion in its native purity, will best flourish when uncontaminated by the regulations of the civil power. The idea that rulers have the right or the capacity to prescribe creeds, or forms of worship, for their subjects, is so preposterous, that it must vanish before the slightest examination. Already reforms in the English hierarchy are loudly called for, in consequence of which a commission has lately been appointed to inquire into its condition, with a view to the more equal adjustment of compensation to labor, and to diffuse parochial instruction more generally among the people. This commission have made a report, which was laid before parliament in March, 1835, accompanied by propositions for a partial reform. What may be the result of touching a superstructure when its foundation is gone, time only can determine.

UNIVERSITIES. England has two ancient universities, Cambridge, founded in 1229, and Oxford in 1263. These institutions are richly endowed, and on a scale to which no American litera-

*The foregoing statements though not perfectly accurate, are sufficiently so to present a general aspect of the subject.

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ry institution can bear any comparison. Cambridge university has seventeen colleges, each of which is a body by itself, and governed by its own statutes, subject however to some general regulations, common to the whole. Seven years' residence is necessary to complete an education: three before taking the first degree, and four afterwards, before taking the second degree in the arts. The average annual expense of a student, including every thing except clothing, is estimated at one hundred pounds sterling, $444. The whole number of members belonging to Cambridge university in 1835, was 5364, of whom twenty-four were professors, and seventeen hundred students of the first three years. In Oxford, in the same year, there were 5274 members, including twenty-nine professors, and fourteen hundred under-graduates.

Some of the other principal literary institutions, are the London university, with thirty professors, and four hundred and forty students, King's college, St. David's, Eaton, and Winchester colleges.

There are 4187 endowed schools, with funds amounting to thirteen millions of dollars, and fourteen thousand unendowed schools. Common schools for the gratuitous instruction of the poor, at the public expense, are not provided. Much however has been done by individual exertion and private charity.

SUNDAY SCHOOLS. Sunday schools had their origin in England, and commenced in the exertions of Mr. Raikes, of Gloucester, in 1781. Struck with the wretched appearance of a number of children in the streets, near his residence, on inquiring the cause, he was informed that on Sundays, when they were released from work, and the few who enjoyed the benefit of any instruction, were let loose from school, they presented a most affecting spectacle of misery and vice. This suggested to him the idea that the evil might in some degree be prevented by putting them to school on Sundays. He engaged several women who kept school in the neighborhood, to receive such children as he should send them on Sundays, and instruct them in reading, and the catechism, paying each a shilling for her day's work. He soon collected a considerable number of children, distributed books among them, settled their quarrels, gave them good advice, and persuaded them to attend his schools. His example was soon followed by other philanthropists, and in the course of a few years, upwards of two hundred thousand children were receiving the benefits of Sunday schools. Several years since, the number of these schools in England, under the care of the established church, was eight thousand, with five hundred thousand pupils. Those under the care of dissenters are estimated at nearly an equal number.

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PERIODICALS. The number of newspapers in England is two hundred, of which fifty are in London. The city being the centre of intelligence for the whole kingdom, its periodicals are numerous, and of more extensive circulation than any others. Each paper must be printed on a stamped sheet, on which a heavy duty is paid; twenty-five millions of sheets are annually used. Ten of the principal London papers pay an aggregate stamp duty of a million of dollars annually. Numerous other periodicals, varying from weekly to yearly, and of every character, political, moral, critical and religious, are published. The most useful periodical publication in England, or indeed in any country, is one under the title of the Penny Magazine, published weekly in London. Each number consists of eight pages, of the largest sized octavo, making a monthly part of thirty-two pages, illustrated with about twenty handsome engravings, and usually accompanied with a supplement of eight pages. This work is published in London, by an association called the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, of which the late lord chancellor Brougham is president. It embraces most of the men of science and talent in the kingdom. The object of the publication is properly expressed in the name which the society has assumed. No pains are spared to collect knowledge upon every subject interesting to mankind, and relating to every age and country, and to present it in an agreeable and cheap form to the public. It is distributed to the people in every part of the kingdom at one penny, two cents a number, from which circumstance it takes its name, no agent or bookseller being allowed to take any greater sum; the whole expenses of transportation and agency being provided for by the society. It commenced in March, 1832, and before the end of the year upwards of two hundred thousand numbers were weekly printed and distributed. The work is stereotyped, so that copies can be multiplied to any required extent.

This experiment of diffusing general information by means of periodicals, originated in England, and is of modern date, newspapers being at first designed only to be the vehicles of the news of the day, and advertisements, accompanied with a proportion of extraordinary accidents, and wonderful events, to render them interesting. It has proved successful. The size and price of a considerable volume would deter many persons from purchasing and reading it, who would gladly pay a small sum weekly or monthly for the same matter, and read it with avidity, coming to them in small parcels, and at stated periods. No act of lord Brougham's eventful life is more to be admired than the institution of this society, and the planning and conducting of this publication. Unlike most of his cotemporary politicians on the continent, he seems to be willing to place the stability of

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government upon the general information of the people, and to rely on gradual and moderate reforms for the preservation of the fabric.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. England is emphatically the country of internal improvements; more money has been expended in facilitating the intercourse between its different parts, than in any other country of the same extent and population. They are, at the same time, in a great measure, the cause and effects of its superabundant wealth. They have all been effected by private enterprize. Government has expended nothing, and feels no necessity for any expenditure on these subjects. No enterprize promising any return to the stockholders, needs the aid of government. Private capital seeking investment is ever ready to undertake it. The first canal in Great Britain was that undertaken by the Duke of Bridgewater, in 1758, the object of which was to convey coal from the mines on his estates, to Manchester, a distance of forty miles. This work, expensive beyond any enterprize then undertaken, proved advantageous to the owner. It was the commencement of a business which, since that time, has produced twenty-five hundred miles of canal in England.

Railways are of modern invention, and were first constructed in England, for the purpose of conveying coal from the mines to water carriage. Their facilities being proved for that purpose, they soon came into use for the general objects of passage and transportation, and on account of the greater speed with which travelling is effected on them, they bid fair to supersede the use of canals where they come in competition.

England also abounds in good turnpike roads. Since the application of steam to the purposes of land transportation, experiments have been made to impel carriages by that agent on these roads; it has been sufficiently tested to prove its practicability, but not to determine with any certainty whether it can be introduced into common use with advantage.

One of the most extraordinary of human enterprizes, was the making a tunnel under the Thames, at the east end of the city, intended to form a communication under the bed of the river between Wapping and Rotherhithe, below any of the bridges. This work was undertaken in 1825; it was to consist of two parallel arch-ways, thirteen hundred feet long and fourteen feet wide each; and the crown of the arch to be fifteen feet below the bed of the river. The work progressed with some promise of success until it reached a point nearly under the middle of the river, when the water suddenly burst through, drowned several of the workmen, and put an end to the enterprize, at least for a considerable time. The work has since been re-commenced, and is now finished.

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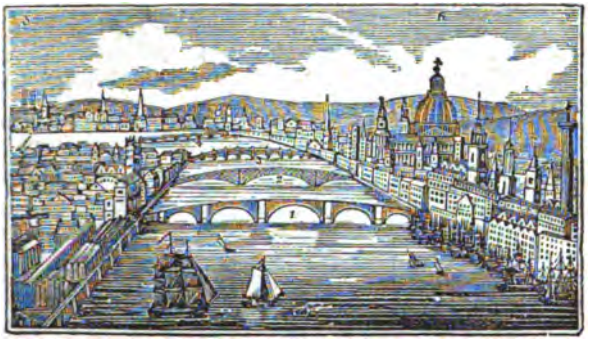
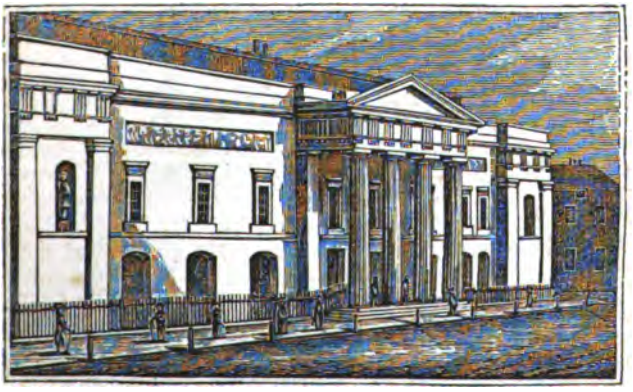


London.

LONDON. The city of London, which together with Westminster and Southwark, constitute the metropolis of the British empire, and the greatest commercial depot in the world, stands on the north bank of the Thames, sixty miles west of its mouth, in latitude 51° 31′ north. London and its environs, is in length seven and a half miles, and in circumference thirty, covering an area of eleven thousand acres, and containing a population of a million and a half of inhabitants.



Theatre Royal — Covent Garden.

At the east end of the city are situated the ware-houses, docks, and every thing connected with ship building and commerce. The Thames is here a quarter of a mile wide, and has a depth of twelve feet of water.

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The west end is the abode of wealth and fashion; all who reside in London for the sake of its luxuries and enjoyments, seek a dwelling in this quarter. Merchants, whose ware-houses, and places of business are in the east, whenever they are able, have their dwelling houses in the west.

Westminster, containing the royal palaces and government offices, the places of the sessions of parliament and courts of law, is designated as the court end of the town. The borough of Southwark and county of Surrey, on the south bank of the Thames, is connected with London by six splendid bridges. Southwark is the seat of the principal manufactories belonging to the city. A considerable portion of this borough, and the extreme east end of the city, exhibit a population of a degrading character.

Entrance to the King's Palace.

The commerce of London is estimated at six hundred millions, employing three thousand lighters and twelve thousand seamen and porters, in lading and unlading vessels in the river, and four thousand wagons and other carriages for the interior trade. London and its environs contain 233 episcopal church livings, and 262 dissenting congregations. It abounds in public buildings of the highest order, and for various purposes. A description of them would fill a volume, and fatigue the reader to little purpose. Instead of which, he is presented with drawings of three of the handsomest, to wit: Covent garden theatre, designed to furnish evening amusements to royalty; the entrance to the king's palace; and Westminster abbey.

The latter place is celebrated for its monuments and remains.

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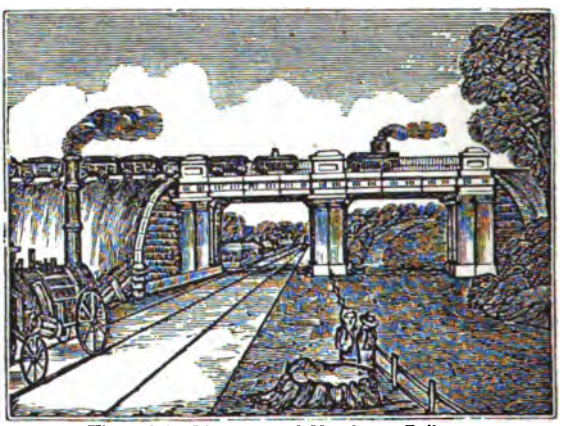
There are deposited the bodies of nearly all the kings, queens, and princes, from Edward the confessor, to George the second; and the remains of distinguished poets, writers, and philosophers, from Chaucer to our own time.

Westminster Abbey.

Notwithstanding the admiration with which a stranger contemplates the wealth and splendor of the city of London, the other side of the picture presents an appalling aspect. Mr. Colquhoun, an intelligent city magistrate, gives the following account of its canaille; "20,000 individuals rise in the morning without knowing how they shall procure subsistence through the day, or where they shall sleep at night; 116,000 beggars, and 115,000 thieves and pickpockets, haunt the streets and prowl about houses and crowds. Three thousand receivers of stolen goods; ten thousand servants out of place; thirty thousand women of the town, and five thousand houses, the resorts of this population. Eight thousand disturbers of the peace are annually sent to the prisons of London." This city, it is said, after making allowance for the difference in numbers, is far beyond Paris in corruption of manners. According to Mr. Colquhoun's statement, every tenth man, at least, must be set down as a rogue.

Liverpool, the second commercial city in the kingdom, stands on the Irish sea, at the mouth of the river Mersey, two hundred miles north-west from London. It is more accessible to vessels crossing the Atlantic than that city, and is the seaport for the great manufacturing town of Manchester. Seven eights of the cotton imported into England, is landed at Liverpool. Eight hundred vessels, with a tonnage of one hundred and sixty thousand, belong to the city. The Liverpool and Manchester railway commences at the company's yard in Wapping. Here the lower entrance of the great tunnel is accessible through an open

cutting, twenty-two feet deep, and forty-six wide, being a space sufficient for four lines of railway, with pillars between the lines to support the flooring of the warehouses, which are thrown across this excavation, and under which wagons pass to be loaded or discharged, through hatchways communicating with the stores above. The tunnel is twenty-two feet high, sixteen



View of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway.

feet broad, and one mile in length; the thickness from the roof to the superficies of the ground, is from five to seventy feet. The whole length of this cavern is constantly lighted with gas, and the sides and roof white washed, to add to the effect of the illumination.

The road was begun in 1826, and completed in September, 1830. The distance is thirty-two miles, and is sometimes passed by passenger cars driven by steam in less than an hour. It is said to have been run once in thirty-three minutes. The speed can scarcely be said to have any limits but the discretion of the managers. This extreme velocity is attended with great hazard, as any accident by which the cars are suddenly stopped, must be fatal to passengers. Before the rail road was in operation, the number of passengers in coaches was usually about 800 daily. Merchandize generally went by the canal. In the latter part of 1831, 2600 passengers, and 400 tons of goods were transported in a day.

The population of Liverpool is 200,000. Manchester is the first manufacturing town in the kingdom, and of the same size with Liverpool; possessing no natural advantages, either for commerce or manufactures, it has risen to be one of the first cities in the kingdom by an accidental congregation of wealthy and enterprising manufacturers.

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WILLIAM THE FOURTH. The last reigning monarch was William IV. the third son of George the III. and the eldest brother living of George the IV., born August 21, 1765, and succeeded to the crown, June 26, 1830. He was educated a sailor, and went through the various grades from midshipman to admiral. In the war of the American revolution, he was at Halifax and New York, in the character of a sailor boy. He was affable in his manners, cordial in his deportment, with much of the rude frank-heartedness of the sailor. In the navy he had been the messmate and companion with commoners, and under the command of officers of that rank. This gave him more acquaintance with mankind, and the knowledge of their concerns, than usually belongs to royalty. The parliamentary reform of 1832, was peculiarly his own, and carried through with great perseverance, against a powerful opposition. Here all eulogy on his character must end.

The present parties are divided into whigs or reformers, and tories or conservatives; the former seeking a reformation in church and state; the latter striving to preserve both in their present condition. The highest grade of whigs are called radicals, whose object is to abolish the union between church and state, placing all sects upon an equality, and to establish in substance a republican government. The other party also have their different grades; the highest are opposed to all reform; the moderate would concede something in order to preserve the remainder. Until a late period, William was considered the friend of moderate reform; but by his recent dismissal of a whig, and the appointment of a tory cabinet, he lost the confidence of the party, and fixed upon himself the character of instability.

In his domestic relations his conduct admits of no apology. While duke of Clarence, he was married to a lady, not of his choice, but to one selected for him on political grounds, as is common with princes and as is also common with them, conjugal obligations were held in little estimation. He soon neglected his wife, and chose for his companion, Dorothea Bland, a celebrated actress in the London theatres. She assumed the title of Mrs. Jordan, in consequence of living with a man of that name, to whom she was never married. After her connection with the duke of Clarence, she became the mother of four sons and five daughters, all of whom William recognized, and made ample provision for; her fourth son he selected as his chaplain. After a long intercourse producing these results, Mrs. Jordan was repudiated, and retired to France, where she lived in obscurity, and died in 1816, without a relative or friend to soothe her last hours, or to bestow on her remains the rites of a decent burial.

This conduct of William's has passed uncensured by all the high civil and ecclesiastical characters in the kingdom, afford-

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ing a melancholy example of the state of public morals, and the corrupting influence of power in the nation of which he was the head. The maxim that the king can do no wrong, originally intended only to throw the blame of his political errors on his ministers from whom they emanated, has been strangely perverted to justify the grossest immoralities. William died in 1836, and the crown descended to Alexandrina Victoria.

Victoria, the present queen of England is the daughter of the late duke of Kent, deceased, who was the fourth son of George III. Victoria was born the 24th of May. 1819; she succeeded to the crown before held by her uncle, William IV., June 20, 1837; on the 10th of February, 1840, she was married to Prince Albert, of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. On the 21st of November, 1840, Queen Victoria gave birth to a female child, and on the 9th of November, 1841, to a male child, who is heir to the crown of Great Britain, he acquired by right of birth, the title of duke of Cornwall, to which, that of Prince of Wales has since been added.

The nation now pays by annual grants of parliament to the descendants of George III., other that the reigning queen, and to their connections by marriage, upwards of $700,000, and $93,240 to two of king William's cousins, the descendants of George II. to support the dignity of the collaterals of the blood royal.

In February, 1842, Sir Robert Peel brought forward in the house of Commons, a ministerial plan for an alteration in the corn laws, this resulted in some modification of these laws, which has not been productive of any marked benefit to the American trade; a large portion of the population of Great Britain are in favor of a repeal of all laws taxing the staff of life, and other provisions which enter into the general consumption, and it is thought that the time is not far distant, when a material change in the corn laws and kindred enactments may be expected.

The great feature of Sir Robert Peel's administration has been the passage of an income tax, which as emanating from a conservative ministry, and adding to the burthen of many of its supporters, must be considered a bold measure on the part of that statesman.

The Chartists. Within a few years, a political party has arisen in England, whose numerical strength is now very considerable; it is chiefly composed of the working classes, and their object is to effect a radical reform in existing political constitutions, and to obtain a written constitution. On the 2d of May, 1842, the Hon. M. T. Duncombe presented to the house of Commons, a chartist petition signed by more than three million British subjects; the weight of this leviathan document

was more than two hundred pounds, and was borne in an immence procession to the house of Commons, on a frame-work of wood by thirty three men. On this frame was the motto, "THE CHARTER—THE PEOPLE'S RIGHT"; banners were carried in the procession, on which were inscribed, "the sovereignty of the people," "no surrender," "liberty," "more pigs and less parsons," "universal suffrage," there were several bands of music, and all in the procession wore a tri colored rosette, and a tri-colored scarf.

The petition asserts that all sovereignty resides in the people, that the only authority to govern society is a delegation from the people, and that all should be equally represented. In proof that the people of Great Britain are not represented, the petition states that out of a population of twenty-six millions of persons, only nine hundred thousand voted in the recent election of representatives to govern the whole, and that even the present representation is exceedingly unequal; and in evidence of this assertion among other facts stated, the petition sets forth that Evesham with a population of 3998, elects as many representatives as Manchester, with a population of 200,000, and in other instances specified, a population of 23,000 elects as many representatives as one of 1,400,000; the petitioners complain loudly of the bribery and corruption which disgraces English elections, and contend for equal electoral districts, universal suffrage, and the vote by ballot, the petitioners also pray for annual elections, the abolition of property qualifications for a seat in Parliament, and they request that all representatives should be paid a limited amount for their services.

If this numerous body of British subjects conduct themselves wisely, maintain their union and organization, and devote themselves heartily to the furtherance of their great political objects, it is hardly to be expected that they will fail of eventually producing some modification in British legislation.

SCOTLAND. Scotland, the northern section of the island of Great Britain, is separated from England by the river Tweed on the east, Solway frith on the west, and a line between these waters, without a natural boundary. Including its islands, it is situated between 54° and 61° north latitude. Its area is 30,000 square miles, or 20,000,000 acres, 5,000,000 of which only are cultivated. The residue is mountain and lake. Its population by a late census, amounts to 2,628,957.

ITS CONNECTION WITH ENGLAND. Until the death of queen Elizabeth, and the accession of James VI. of Scotland to the English throne, in 1603, it had no other connection with England, than what originated in its occasional subjugation. Up to that time, its history exhibits a desperate and almost constant struggle against its more powerful neighbor, for the pres-

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ervation of its independence. The union of the two kingdoms under one crown, put an end to these wars, but was attended with no political change in their condition. James I. as king of England, had no power or jurisdiction in Scotland. He was at the same time James VI. of Scotland, but choosing his residence in the southern, and more powerful kingdom, he exercised the powers attached to the crown of Scotland by a lieutenant. The seventeenth century, during which this union of crowns and separations of kingdoms continued, was one of the most tumultuous periods in English history. Charles I. the son and successor of James was brought to the block in 1649, for attempting to exercise undefined powers. Cromwell's usurpation immediately followed, with far greater despotism than Charles ever attempted to exercise. This again was followed by the restoration of Charles II. in 1660. Next came the change of dynasty in 1688, from James II. to William prince of Orange. Scotland was not bound by any of these revolutions in England. James VI. and his heirs, according to the order of succession in Scotland, were its legitimate monarchs. The nation, however, was compelled to submit to these changes.

During the latter part of this period, propositions were made at various times, for the union of the two nations under one parliament, which was finally perfected in 1707, under the reign of queen Anne. Scotland was allowed a partial representation in the parliament, consisting of sixteen peers, and forty-five commoners, a number something short of one half she was entitled to by her population. The parliament of the United kingdom, now first taking the name of the parliament of Great Britain, was to make general laws for the whole realm, but Scotland was to retain her local usages, her court, and her forms of administering justice. She also retained her presbyterian creed, and form of worship, which had been ordained by the Scotch parliament in 1696.

PRESBYTERIANISM. This differed from the English church not so much in its doctrines, as on the question of different ranks among the clergy. The Scotch system is founded on a perfect equality of ecclesiastical authority, excluding all pre-eminence. The clergy have no tithes. There are 910 parishes, and 938 clergymen, who discharge the pastoral duties. In the government of the church, they are assisted by a number of elders, selected from its members, who with a minister form a kirk session, the lowest ecclesiastical judicature in Scotland. The ministers of several contiguous parishes, form a presbytery, which has cognizance of the conduct of the clergy, and of other ecclesiastical matters within its bounds. Synods are composed of several presbyteries, and of a ruling elder from each kirk session, and constitute courts of review from the presbyteries. The general assembly is a representative body, consisting of a

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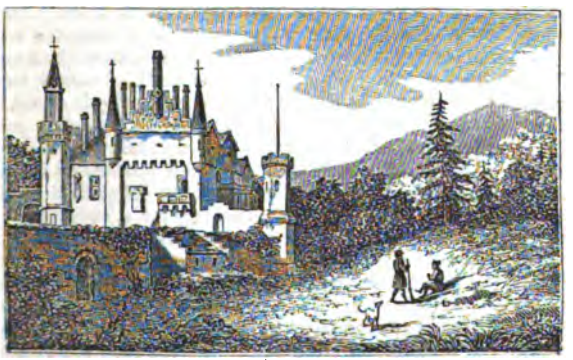
delegation from the whole church. There are few dissenters in Scotland, the whole number not much exceeding a hundred thousand.

LITERATURE. In no country in Europe is more ample provision made for general education. As early as 1700 an act of the Scotch parliament ordained "that there shall be a school, and school master in each parish." These establishments, in all of which the elements of learning are taught, and in some of them the higher branches also, have had a happy effect in diffusing a spirit of inquiry and improvement among all classes.

There are four distinguished universities in Scotland, to wit: Edinburgh, St. Andrews, Glasgow and Aberdeen, where education of the highest order is obtainable.

In proportion to its population, Scotland has produced more men of distinguished literary talents than any other nation. Hume, Robertson, Blair, Kames, Ferguson, Smollett, Thomson, Adam Smith, and Sir Walter Scott, are but the commencement of a catalogue which may be greatly extended. Sir Walter, one of the most distinguished writers of the present age, died at Abbottsford, September 21, 1832. His seat is beautifully situated on the south bank of the Tweed, near its junction with the Ettric, and built of a fine gray stone. The expenses of



Abbottsford — Walter Scott's residence.

the buildings, and the adjacent grounds, with some heavy losses, involved him in bankruptcy. His creditors, however, generously allowed him to enjoy it during life, and still permit his family to retain the possession. Subscriptions have been raised for preserving it in the style in which it was left by its proprietor, and for erecting a monument to his memory on one of the adjoining hills.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY. Scotland, as to the face of the country, and manners of its inhabitants, is divided into two sections.

The first extends from its southern border, to the Grampian hills, and is called the Lowlands. It resembles the neighboring English counties. Its inhabitants with a better education, exceed their neighbors south of the line, in manners, intelligence and morals. The Highlands, embracing the whole of Scotland north of the southern base of the Grampian hills, is a region of mountain, valley, and lakes, or *lochs*, as they are called in the dialect of the country. The mountains are bleak and barren. the valleys are fertile, but small. The lochs, and the adjacent seas, furnish much of the support of the inhabitants. Its northern extremity is a region of almost continued night in the winter, the sun appearing but a few hours daily above the horizon. In the snmmer, daylight may be seen during the whole twenty-four hours. These regions are peopled by a peasantry of a peculiar character. They have a dialect of their own, derived from the ancient Gaelic, with little improvement, and unintelligible to an Englishman. Their national costume, to which they are peculiarly attached, consists of a kilt, short wide trowsers descending from the waist to the knees, and a plaid or checkered woollen cloth of various colors, thrown over the shoulders, and fastened by a clasp. The wealth and importance of the wearer, is designated by the richness of the plaid, and the size and elegance of the clasp. The thigh is not otherwise covered than by the loose kilt, but the leg is adorned with a tartan stocking, fastened at the knee with garters of variegated woollen. A small bonnet adorned with a feather, crowns the head.

The cabin of the highland peasant is built of round stone, plaistered with mud, and covered with a roof of sods or thatch. The interior is divided into two apartments, by a wicker partition, one appropriated to the cattle and fowls, and the other, the principal one, forms the kitchen, dining room, parlor and lodging place for the whole family. The bed of the Highland is composed of heath or fern, with a woollen rug for a covering. In the middle of the room is the hearth, over which hangs the pot, in which the family repast is cooked. A hole is left open in the roof to let out the smoke, but not directly over the hearth, lest the rain should put out the fire, so that much of the smoke fills the room, and at length finds its way out at the door. Their food consists of oat meal, milk and fruit. Christmas is with them a great holiday, on which occasion they indulge in the luxury of a slice of mutton or beef. Estimating human happiness by the amount of luxury enjoyed, we should pronounce the highland peasant among the most miserable of human beings; but all experience proves this to be a false estimate. With all his poverty, the Highlander in his dreary mountain hut, is contented, robust, healthy, brave and generous. His appetite gives a zest to his meals, unknown at the table of the rich. His abstemious manner of life banishes dyspepsia, and a train of other disorders, and renders useless the skill of the physician.

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There are three clusters of small islands on the coast of Scotland, the Hebrides on the west, with a population of 70,000, and the Orkneys and Shetland islands in the north, with a population of 25,000. The extreme north of Shetland is in latitude 61°, near the arctic circle. The principal occupation and means of subsistence of these islanders is fishing. A hut, a rug, a cow, a pot, a spade, two or three nets, and a boat, form a respectable domestic establishment.

IRELAND. Ireland is separated from Great Britain by St. George's channel, or the Irish sea, in some places 120 miles, and in others not more than twelve miles in width, between latitude 51° and 55° north. Its length is 280 miles, and breadth 160, and superficies 30,000 square miles. Its population is estimated at 7,767,401. The history of Ireland from its earliest period to the year 1800, exhibits a series of wars on the part of Great Britain for its subjugation, and of oppressions towards a conquered people; and on the part of Ireland, of struggles to maintain her independence, and to resist oppression. For the last three or four centuries, Ireland has yielded to the domination of her more powerful neighbor, and been governed by a lord lieutenant, exercising by deputation the powers of the English monarch, having a parliament of its own, and its laws subject to an absolute negative by its English governor.

In the year 1800, Ireland, reluctantly submitted to the annihilation of its parliament, and separate government, and agreed to a political union with Great Britain; with a partial representation in the British parliament, which from that time took the name of the parliament of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Its population amounts to one third of the whole kingdom, its representation in the house of commons to one sixth, and in the house of lords to one twelfth of the parliament.

Ireland suffers much from this unequal representation, especially in her ecclesiastical concerns. The great body of the people have ever been Roman Catholics. With all the aids derived from power and persecution, the reformation has made but little progress. From a calculation made on a particular examination in reference to the emancipation of the Roman Catholics in 1827, the religious character of the population of Ireland is put down at—

Roman Catholics, - - - -	4,780,000
Presbyterians, - - - - - -	700,000
Episcopalians, - - - - -	400,000
Dissenters of other denominations,	2,000,000

To minister to this population of 400,000 adhering to the church of England, are four archbishops, eighteen bishops, and 1700 beneficed clergy and curates; a great portion of them non-

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residents, holding their places as perfect sinecures; for the support of this establishment the whole people of Ireland pay tithes amounting to $5,772,000. The clergy not of the established church are 2000 Roman Catholics, and 380 of other denominations. This body has an aggregate income derived from their hearers of $1,171,000, and with few exceptions are employed in active parochial duties. The great mass of the Irish population have two expensive religious establishments to support, one, the clergy of their own denominations; and the other that of the church of England, which they deem heretical.

Until the passage of what is called the Roman Catholic emancipation bill in 1829, the Catholics in Ireland, as well as in England and Scotland, were excluded from all offices of honor and profit, and in Ireland these offices were exclusively in the hands of Episcopalians, amounting only to one twentieth part of the population.

PEASANTRY. The Irish peasantry generally occupy small tenements under heavy rents; the landlords living either in England or in the cities of Ireland, their rents are collected in money through the medium of stewards; the people seldom having the benefit of the money being spent among them. These rents, the government taxes, tithes to the Episcopal clergy, and the support of their own religious teachers, reduce the Irish peasantry to the lowest grade of poverty. Every production of the land must be converted into money, leaving to the tenant and his family a scanty subsistence on potatoes and milk. A great portion of the Irish peasantry are tenants of small patches of land from ten to fifty acres, under these circumstances. There is, however, much wealth in Ireland, and the higher classes resemble, in their manners, and mode of living, their neighbors of England.

The manifest injustice of taking a tenth part of a poor tenant's earnings to support an ecclesiastical establishment abhorrent to his principles, came into view in the discussion of the Catholic emancipation bill, and was so universally felt, that the passage of that bill was followed by a general refusal of the catholic population to pay tithes to the clergy of the Episcopal church. Two methods were resorted to, to resist this exaction, one by actual force against the collector, the other by a refusal on the part of the people to purchase property offered for sale for the discharge of tithe dues. The Irish populace are remarkable for giving effect to their resolutions. Collectors of tithes went among them at the hazard of their lives, and when accompanied by an armed force, the most desperate struggles ensued. Any person purchasing property offered for sale by the tithe-gatherers, was sure to have that and all his other property destroyed, and he might be deemed well off, if he escaped with his life and without the conflagration of his dwelling.

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Numerous bodies of troops have been sent over from England to quell these disturbances, and enforce the collection of tithes. Much blood has been shed, and these efforts have been unsuccessful. The more considerate of the Roman Catholics claim, that after making reasonable provision for the present incumbents, tithes should be abolished, or that their avails should be applied to the support of the clergy to whom the payer is attached. A proposition so reasonable, addressing itself to the common sense and understanding of mankind, cannot fail to be approved: it has, however, to meet the whole force of the English hierarchy, and all opposers of reform. They apprehend with much reason, that the abolition of tithes in Ireland will be followed with a similar event in England, accompanied with a reformation in the Episcopal church, which will deprive the bishops and high dignitaries of their sinecures, and apportion the compensation of the clergy to their labors. After the emancipation of the Irish catholics from tithes, it is not to be expected that the 6,000,000 of dissenters in England, will consent to give a tenth of their earnings to the support of a clergy not of their choice.

Ireland is more densely populated than England, having 266 inhabitants to the square mile. The soil is fertile, producing great quantities of grain, butter, beef, and cattle for exportation. Until of late years the raising of flax, and manufacturing it into fine linen, was a great business in Ireland. Irish linen was in high estimation, and furnished the principal staple of the country. The cheapness of cotton fabrics, and their consequent introduction into common use, has reduced the price, and to a great extent, superseded the use of this article. The bogs of Ireland form a remarkable feature in the geography of the country. They are of different kinds, but are all an unproductive marsh, except that in some instances they afford a scanty pittance for cattle. By a report of commissioners recently appointed to examine into the nature and extent of these bogs, they are stated to cover about 3,000,000 of acres, most of which are capable of being drained, and brought into useful cultivation.

DUBLIN. Dublin is the principal city of Ireland, and the seat of its former government. It is situated on Dublin bay, in St. George's channel, in latitude 55° north, three hundred miles north-west of London. The bay is of a circular form, six miles in diameter, and receives at its head the river Liffey, which divides the city into nearly equal parts north and south. Its population is about 200,000.

This city, formerly the seat of the Irish government, has lost much of its importance by the union of the two kingdoms. It still has a considerable number of elegant public buildings, one of the most splendid of which is the Dublin post office. It has a

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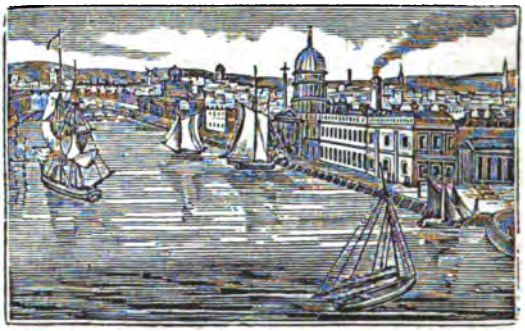
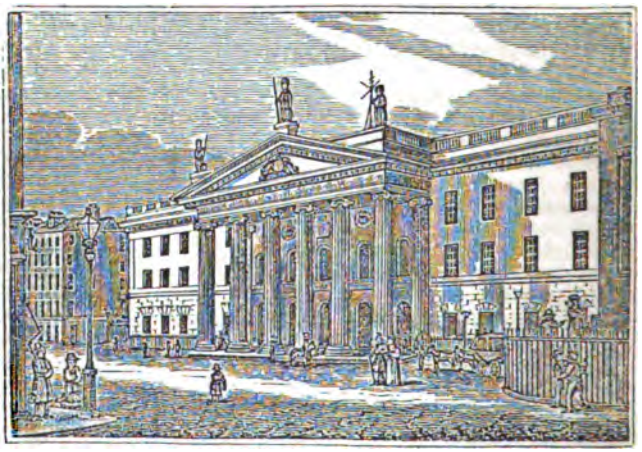


Dublin.

university of considerable eminence; the only literary institution deserving that name in Ireland. Very little attention is paid to the education of the common people. There is no public provision for schools for the poor, and in respect to the rudiments of education, they are much below the same class in England.



Post Office, Dublin.

The public debt of Ireland in 1817, was $600,000,000, and its ordinary revenue $22,000,000. In that year the exchequer of Ireland was united with that of Great Britain, and the public debt and revenue of the two kingdoms consolidated.

The union of Ireland with Great Britain, owing to its unequal terms, is deprecated by a great portion of the minor kingdom,

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and attended with violent struggles for its dissolution. Nothing more clearly illustrates the wisdom of the principle adopted by the American government, in taking new partners into the union, that of perfect equality, than a contrast of the feelings of the people of Ireland towards England. with those of the new states towards their associates. In the one is to be seen insurrection and rebellion, in their worst forms, and in the other a state of peace and harmony.

JERSEY AND GUERNSEY. The islands of Jersey and Guernsey on the coast of France, are the remnant of the English possessions in that kingdom. The inhabitants, amounting to 50,000, are French in their language and manners, and are suffered to enjoy their own laws. They are distant seventeen miles from the nearest French coast, and seventy-five from the English.

Nearest to the island of Great Britain, and the most unimportant of her colonial possessions, is the island of Heliogoland, in the German ocean. It was wrested from the Danes in 1807, and occupied until 1821 as a military station. It has a population of 2200. Great Britain collects no taxes, and interferes very little in the concerns of the inhabitants. The possession of this island serves but little other purpose than that of adding one to the number of her colonies.

GIBRALTAR. At the extreme south of western Europe is the town and fortress of Gibraltar, a rocky promontory at the southern extremity of the Spanish province of Andalusia, on a strait fifteen miles wide, at the entrance of the Mediterranean, in latitude 36° north. The promontory is 1200 feet above the level of the sea, seven miles in length from north to south, and half a mile in breadth; it is every where precipitous, and in some places perpendicular. Nature and art have conspired to render it impregnable. It was taken from Spain in 1704, and has ever since been retained by the English. Spain has made several unsuccessful attempts to regain it; the last was towards the close of the war of the American revolution, when Great Britain was assailed by the combined forces of France, Spain, Holland, and the United States. It was attacked, September, 1782, by 30,000 land forces, and numerous floating batteries; and was bravely and successfully defended by general Elliot, who succeeded in setting fire to the Spanish flotilla, and defeated the assailants with great loss. It was secured to Great Britain by the peace of the following year, and her possession has since remained undisturbed. The place is strongly garrisoned at an expense of $180,000 a year. The town of Gibraltar is built at the foot of the promontory, on its north-west side, and contains 12,000 inhabitants. It is the entrepot of British manufactures and merchandize for the Mediterranean market. The bay of Gibraltar, nine miles in length, and five in breadth, stretches

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before the town, and furnishes a safe and convenient harbor, and an important naval station.

MALTA. Proceeding up the Mediterranean directly east from Giblarltar, we come to the island of Malta, another strong British fortress, sixty miles south of Sicily, and 200 north of the nearest point of the African coast. The island with its dependent Gozzo, comprizes 170 square miles, and contains 94,000 inhabitants. These islands had for several hundred years been in the possession of the knights of the order of St. John's of Jerusalem, consisting of an association of nobility or knights of various nations, whose primary object was to defend Jerusalem against the attacks of infidels, and to protect the commerce of the Mediterranean from pirates. In 1798, Bonaparte in his expedition to Egypt, took the island from these knights. In 1800, the French garrison capitulated to a British force, and in 1814, in the general arrangement at Paris, these islands were confirmed to Great Britain. The fortifications of Malta are said to be the strongest in the world. Besides five forts commanding the most important points, there are lines of great strength inclosing the various quarters, and forming works of such extent as to require 25,000 men fully to garrison them. The ditches are hewn out of the rock of which the island is principally composed, and in some places are ninety feet deep. The works are mounted by a thousand pieces of cannon. Valette is the principal city, and contains one half the population of the island.

IONIAN ISLANDS. The most eastern possession of the British in the Mediterranean, is the republic of the seven Ionian islands. The group consists of seven principal islands with several small ones, at the entrance of the Adriatic sea, or gulf of Venice, between latitude 36° and 40° north and contain a population of 230,000. These islands have frequently changed masters, having at different times been subject to Austria, Venice, and Turkey. In November, 1815, it was agreed between Great Britain and Russia, and afterwards acceded to by Austria, that they should form a republic under the name of the United State of the Ionian Islands, under the exclusive protection of Great Britain. In 1817 a constitution was granted them, by which a high commissioner appointed by the British government resides at Corfu, the capital of the State. He appoints the governors of the several islands, commands the forces, convokes the legislative assembly, and regulates their commerce. Their productions consist of corn, wine, olives, cotton, currants, and honey. Their exports in these articles amount to about $700,000 annually. Their revenue, amounting to $660,000 in imposts and taxes collected of the people, is also under the control of the commissioner; and two thirds of it expended in maintaing a British garrison of 6000 men, including four regiments of natives. This

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little republic, not half as large as one of the United States, on an average, pays upwards of half a million of dollars annually, for the privilege of having its commerce controlled, its strong places occupied, and its governmnnt directed by a foreign power.

Possessed of these three commanding positions in the Mediterranean, the commerce of that sea is subject to the control of Great Britain; not a ship can sail, either in peace or war, but by her permission.

SIERRA LEONE. Returning out of the Mediterranean, and passing down the coast of Africa, the first British possession is Sierra Leone, in latitude 8° north. Previous to the year 1772, considerable numbers of English colonists from America had returned to reside in England, bringing with them some of their slaves; in consequence of a decision of the English judges, that slavery was inconsistent with the common law of England, and that a slave became free on setting his foot on English ground, a considerable number of these blacks left their masters, and became vagabonds. Their condition excited the compassion of Granville Sharp, and some other philanthropists, who formed the plan of transporting them to their native country, and sought out Sierra Leone for that purpose, and in 1817, a district of country having been purchased of an African prince, they were transported to that place. In 1792, 1200 negroes who had been seduced from their masters in the United States during the war of the revolution, and had remained a burden on the British government, were also sent to Sierra Leone, and several years after, the colony received an addition of five hundred negroes from Nova Scotia, of the same character. The colony continued under the direction of a private company until 1807, when it was surrendered to the government.

At this period, Great Britain had not only abandoned the slave trade herself, but had obtained permission from some other powers to treat as pirates such of their subjects as should be found engaged in the trade north of the equator. The negroes liberated by her cruisers are also placed at Sierra Leone. The whole number which have been planted in the colony, by virtue of these arrangements is about twenty thousand. A portion of land is assigned to each one, and a daily allowance of provision for the first six months, after which they are left to provide for themselves. The settlement, of late, is in a flourishing condition, and furnishes articles for considerable traffic.

Freetown, the principal place in the colony, has a good harbor on the Sierra Leone river, six miles from its mouth, and a population of six thousand. Sierra Leone is 160 miles north of the American colony of Liberia, with which a friendly intercourse is maintained. The British settlements on the Gold coast contain a population of about 10,000.

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ST. HELENA. The island or rock of St. Helena is in latitude 6° south, about midway in the Atlantic ocean, between the eastern and western continents; detached from any group of islands, and twelve hundred miles from the nearest point of land on the African coast. It is ten miles long, seven broad, and thirty-eight in circumference, first discovered by the Portuguese in 1501, and became an English possession in 1651. It presents to the view from the sea, nothing but a wall of perpendicular rock throughout its whole coast, rising from six to twelve hundred feet in height, in the midst of the ocean. There are only four openings in this great rock at which it can be approached; all of them are strongly fortified. At the principal one, in a long, narrow valley between the mountains, is Jamestown, the only place which can be called a town. The only value of the island to the nation, is, that it is a convenient stopping place for vessels in the East India trade, passing the cape of Good Hope. The United States by treaty enjoy this privilege. This rock is noted as being the place of confinement, death, and burial, of the greatest warrior of the age. Ascending from Jamestown by a long and narrow defile, to a small plain of table-land, near the top of the rock, the traveller arrives at Longwood, Napoleon's last abode.

When the allied powers had conquered Bonaparte a second time, and he had voluntarily sought an asylum from the Bourbons on board an English frigate, it became an interesting question, what disposition should be made of his person. On his return from Elba, and renewal of the war, the congress of Vienna declared him an outlaw, and a public enemy of the peace of Europe. No acknowledged principles of national law warranted his detention as a prisoner of war after the peace. He had then designed to make the United States the place of his future residence, and the ruling powers of France had provided two frigates to transport him and his effects thither. Instead of allowing him to proceed, the allied powers, bottoming themselves upon the principles of self-preservation, determined to confine him to this rock, under a vertical sun, guarded by a regiment of soldiers, and a squadron of ships, at an expense little short of a million of dollars a year; and under the surveillance of English, French, and Russian spies, in the character of commissioners. Probably not one of the least of the recommendations of such a confinement, was, that it would shorten his days.

He was landed on the island, October 15, 1815, and died May 5, 1821, at the age of fifty-two. In 1840, his remains were removed from St. Helena by the French government, Great Britain having assented to the act, and placed in the church of the Invalides in Paris. The funeral procession was splendid, it is estimated that five hundred thousand persons were present, the coffin was conveyed on a car, the king and royal family were

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present, and sixty-thousand national guards in attendance. No higher proof can be had of the estimation in which Bonaparte's talents were held by the powers of Europe, than the manner in which they deemed it necessary to confine him.

The next British colony on the route to the East Indies, is at the cape of Good Hope. The territory partially occupied by Europeans, extends from latitude 30° to 35° south, the southern extremity of the eastern continent. It extends from east to west across south Africa, 550 miles, and contains 120,000 square miles, and an average of one inhabitant to a mile. It is washed by the ocean on three sides, and on the north it is separated from the interior by a range of high mountains. The continent of Africa, and a line drawn from its southern extremity to the south pole, divide the waters of the Atlantic and Indian oceans. The cape was originally colonized by the Dutch, about the middle of the seventeenth century, and was taken by the English in 1806, and has ever since been retained by them. The Dutch settlers in the interior are called Boors, and are in a degraded condition. Ignorant, stupid, and without ambition, they exhibit a uniform picture of filth and wretchedness, in the midst of a land of plenty.

The great difference in the condition of the colonists, and the descendants of their common ancestors at home, is to be accounted for from the enervating effect of a warm climate, and a soil producing sustenance without labor. The colony, though deemed an important acquisition, is of little consequence to Great Britain, other than as it forms a connecting link with her East India possessions, and together with St. Helena, enables her to command the East India trade.

Isle of France. Proceeding eastward from the southern promontory of Africa, the next English possession is the island of Mauritius, or the isle of France in the Indian ocean, 800 miles east of the eastern coast of Africa, in latitude 20° south. The island is of a circular form, 150 miles in circumference, first occupied by the French in 1721, taken by the English in 1810, and confirmed to them by the peace of 1814. It has a population of 87,000, three quarters of whom are slaves.

East Indies. In a view of the present condition of the British Empire, its East India possessions form a prominent article. The spices of the east were first introduced into western Europe for consumption by the citizens of Venice, over land. Whether the use of these articles in the preparation of food, serving little other purpose than to create an excitement, was conducive to health, or otherwise, the luxurious did not stop to inquire; they soon became indispensable, and the traffic greatly enriched that city; having the sole management, they could mould it at their pleasure. Near the close of the fifteenth cen-

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tury, and about the time that Columbus was seeking a passage to the East Indies by sailing a western course, the Portuguese succeeded in gaining one by the cape of Good Hope, and soon engrossed the traffic; the Dutch not long after became their competitors.

EAST INDIA COMPANY. In 1599, a company of London merchants formed themselves into a society, which in the course of two centuries acquired greater power and wealth than any other commercial association in the world. In the following year they obtained a charter from queen Elizabeth, incorporating them by the name of the governor, and company of merchants of London, trading to the East Indies, and granting them the exclusive right of trading to all countries eastward of the cape of Good Hope, for fifteen years. The profits of eight voyages amounted to one hundred and seventy per cent. on the capital employed. The charter was confirmed by parliament, and has been renewed at various times; and that feature of it which contains a monopoly of the trade to other parts on the east, than those occupied by the company, has been stricken out. The present charter of the company expired in 1834.

THEIR TERRITORY. For the convenience of their commerce, the company were allowed to establish trading posts, with the consent of the natives. Hence originated their territorial possessions. Disputes frequently arose between the agents of the company and the natives, and also between different native princes, which were referred to the company to settle; hence the necessity of a military force which the company were allowed to maintain, small at first, and designed only to preserve peace. When a conquest was obtained by one prince over another by the aid of the company, they availed themselves of it, to increase their revenue and strength, by heavy contributions on the conquered as the price of peace, and on the conquerers as the price of protection. Native troops in great numbers were taken into the company's service, and under the name of seapoys, were instructed in European tactics, and under European officers, employed to extend the company's conquests. By a process of this sort, marked with rapine and oppression in their most revolting forms, the company have acquired dominion over more than 100,000,000 of people. The object of the company was revenue and large dividends, and of their officers, the accumulation of fortunes in the shortest possible time, and a return home to enjoy them. The company's present possession is Hindoston, or India within, that is south of, the Ganges. It lies between 8° and 35° north latitude, and forms a peninsula extending from the Ganges on the north, to cape Comorin, 1800 miles into the Indian ocean. Its greatest breadth is 1500 miles, and its superficies 1,300,000 square miles. Its population is estimated at

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120,000,000, not, however, with any degree of certainty. The estimate is taken from the general appearance of the country, and from what the native princes consider as the number of their respective subjects. Two thirds are directly subject to the company, the other are allies, which is but another name for tributaries.

CALCUTTA. Calcutta is the capital of the British East Indies, and stands on the west branch of the Hoogly river, a principal arm of the Ganges, one hundred miles from its mouth, in latitude 24° north, and longitude 90°, or a quarter of the circle of the globe, east of London. The city proper contains 1,000,000 of inhabitants, and with the suburbs within the circuit of twenty miles, a population of upwards of 2,000,000, being more dense than the same circuit in the environs of London. Calcutta is the residence of the governor general of India, and the seat of justice for the supreme court. Justice is correctly administered according to the principles of the English law, without regard to rank, station, or country. England is noted for the impartial administration of justice in all her dominions. Calcutta is the great emporium of Bengal, and the channel through which the treasures of the interior provinces are conveyed to Europe.

COMMERCE OF THE EAST. The importance of this possession to the British empire may be learned from the following estimates of its present condition. An annual export of British productions from the mother country, of $62,000,000, an import of India goods and teas to about the same amount, yielding a revenue of $18,000,000 to the government; and an annual contribution to the circulation of property, of $50,000,000. The present funded stock of the company is $26,640,000, their indivisible and fluctuating property, $222,000,000, and the land tax collected from their Asiatic subjects is $124,320,000. For the purpose of collecting this tax, the whole country is divided into convenient districts, called collectorates, in each of which is stationed a principal collector, with a competent number of deputies, and an armed force to ensure its collection. The company have 16,000 civil officers, and an army of 200,000 men in their pay.

RELIGION OF HINDOSTAN. The moral condition of this people has of late become a subject of deep interest. In the present disposition in the Christian community to impart intelligence, civilization, and Christianity, these 120,000,000 of heathen in the British East Indies, have occupied a large share of attention. The company, intent on gain have had little concern with the religion of the natives, and were unfriendly to the first missionary efforts; but have since yielded to the public sentiment on this subject. The religion of Hindostan, unimproved by any notions derived from their European conquerors, is pure

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paganism; and is a sample of the religion of Eastern Asia. It is sometimes called Pantheism, and contains the following metaphysical jargon: "One exists in all things, and all things exist in one; God in the universe and the universe in God, and nature as a revelation of the divine intelligence. Divine rest is the perfection of happiness, and consists in immersion or absorption in the Godhead." The surest way to obtain this rest is self-immolation. The souls of those who do not obtain it transmigrate into different bodies, at what is called death, and undergo a further purgation. The whole period allotted to the human race for these operations, is 4,230,000 years. These doctrines are contained in four books called Vedas, or sacred books, of which the Brahmins are the only true interpreters. They are the only persons possessed of any learning, and having the custody and interpretation of the Vedas, they have made of their religion just what their fancy or interest prompted.

GODS OF THE HINDOOS. They have three principal gods, Brahma the creator, Vishnu the preserver, and Siva the destroyer. Their temples abound with images of these gods. Brahma having executed his office of creator, is of little note, and considered as at rest. Vishnu the preserver, is represented as holding in one hand the leaf of the lotus, an aquatic plant, denoting that every thing springs from the sea. The horn which he holds in a second hand, signifies the voice with which he animates the chaotic void. In the third he holds a club, indicating his power to punish the wicked; and in a fourth a wheel, symbolic of the eternal circle of life and creation. Vishnu wears a triple crown, denoting that he reigns over earth, sea and sky; and in order to execute the parts assigned him, has appeared on earth in nine different forms, a tenth yet expected, which is a transformation into a horse. Brahma is pictured, and described as a more scandalous and licentious character than the Jupiter of the Greeks.

The god Siva, the destroyer, is represented in a form contrived by the Brahmins to inspire the ignorant Hindoos with terror. He has large impassioned eyes standing out of his head, ears decked with serpents as jewels, and hair plaited and curled in fantastic forms. He holds a club or weapon in his hand, called sula, with which he beats to the earth all who disobey the orders of the Brahmins. His amours, his battles with the giants, in which the four Vedas were his horses, the mountain Mandora Parvata his bow, and Vishnu his arrow; and the manner in which he cut the earth in twain, and took one half of it for his armor, are related with great minuteness in the book Bhagavata, a commentary on the Vedas.

The Hindoos worship almost all kinds of animals and a number of malignant demons, under the name of Bhuta. The object of the adoration of demons, and noxious animals, is to

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persuade them not to injure the worshippers. The doctrine of transmigration is an essential article of the Brahminic faith, and is supposed to be the source from whence the Grecian philosopher Pythagoras drew his principles. From the idea that the bodies of brute animals may be the residence of human souls, the Hindoos infer that it is unlawful to put them to death except in sacrifice. Transmigration is either for the punishment of the wicked, or the rewarding of the good; the former are sent into the bodies of Pariahs, or mean and despicable animals; and the latter into bodies of the most noble kind. Transmigration is not universal; the highest order of devotees go immediately to an eternal and unconscious rest in the universal one. For the wicked who are not reformed, and cannot be sufficiently punished by transmigration, the Brahmins have a hell, in which they are to be plunged several times a day into a lake of mucus, and are subjected to other whimsical punishments. The sufferings are long and severe, but not eternal; they are to be succeeded by a universal restoration of the world.

HINDOO TEMPLES. The building of temples is a work of the highest merit; they are of uniform structure, though of every magnitude, from the splendid pagoda of Juggernaut, down to a little miserable building resembling an oven rather than a place of worship. In the large temples, the gate or entrance is cut through a pyramid fronting the east, next is a court or yard, at the end of which is a second gate, cut through another pyramid, leading into a second yard, at the end of which stands the temple, the residence of the idols, the objects of worship. In the middle of the second yard, the figure of a bull, a cow, a serpent, or some other animal the subject of worship, is placed on a pedestal, to which some mark of reverence is paid by the votaries.

The worshipper passing this yard, is admitted by a low narrow door, into the inside of the temple. This door is the only entrance for air or light. The interior is divided into two or three apartments, all on a level. The air is polluted and rendered in a high degree noxious, from its confined state, from the smell of burning lamps, and from the respiration of the worshippers. Here the superstitious Hindoo prostrates himself before some idol, numbers of which are set up within and around the temple, some of them clothed in splendor, and decked with jewelry, which heightens their grotesque appearance. The merit of the worshipper, and the benefit he is to receive from his adoration, is proportioned to the value of his offering to the idol for the use of the Brahmins. In the best endowed, and most frequented of these temples, numerous persons are maintained as officials.

First in rank are the sacrificers, whose duties are numerous, and daily; next in importance, are the females, waiting maids to the gods; they have charge of the sacred lamps; and are

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generally concubines to the Brahmins, and other male attendants in the temple; low and abandoned in their morals, they dance and sing impure songs, in which the licentious actions of their gods are celebrated.

JUGGERNAUT. The most distinguished and frequented of these temples, is that of Juggernaut. It is situated in the province of Orissa, and district of Cuttack, in latitude 20° north; three hundred miles south of Calcutta, on the coast of Bengal. It is a huge, shapeless mass of decayed granite; conspicuous at a considerable distance at sea, it affords a good landmark for navigators. The town of Pooree, in which the temple is situated, is a dirty, ill built place, inhabited by a sickly Hindoo population, consisting chiefly of priests, and other officers of the idol. The region for a circuit of ten miles around the idol, is esteemed so holy as to ensure happiness to every person who dies on its limits. A great number of images have been fabricated and placed on this ground, and the Brahmins employed in removing the sacred bones of the pilgrims dying here, are obliged to bandage their eyes, lest they should be struck blind by their effulgence.

The image of Juggernaut now inhabiting this temple, is a large carved wooden block, with a hideous visage, painted black, the mouth red and wide open, the eyes and head large, and without legs or hands, having only stumps of arms, except that on important occasions he is supplied with gold or silver arms at full length. Juggernaut, (lord of the world,) the name of the principal idol, has his brother and sister, two other idols of inferior size, and of a white and yellow color, one on his right, and the other on his left hand. On the festival of Ruth Jattna, the three idols are brought forth from the temple with great ceremony and repeated shoutings, and placed upon the cars. These carriages are eighty feet high, and supported by strong frames, placed on four rows of wheels. The upper part of the cars are decorated with broad streamers. They are moved by ropes attached to them, and drawn by the multitude assembled on the occasion.

The anxiety to participate in this sacred work is extreme. The idols are moved in this manner attended by an immense concourse of devotees, from the temple to Juggernaut's garden house, a distance of a mile and a half. The time occupied in this journey, is from three to four days. Horrible scenes occur on these occasions. Many individuals are pressed to death by the impetuous rush of the multitude. Numbers die of famine or fatigue around the place, and often many miles before they reach the end of their pilgrimage. Many offer themselves as a voluntary sacrifice to the idol. Superstition here appears in its most disgusting forms. The temple, throne, and carriage of this deity are covered with indecent sculpture. The motions

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which are made, and the songs sung by the attending priests, are grossly obscene. The highest admiration is given to the unnatural resolution of suicide, when formed and executed by an infatuated individual. After his intention is announced, the crowd with shouts of applause make way for the devotee, who throws himself before one of the wheels, and is crushed to death. Sometimes by an awkward fall, or some accidental impediment, the victim is not immediately killed, but languishes several hours in the agonies of death. The bodies of persons thus sacrificed, must not be buried nor touched, but are left in the position in which they are killed, as food for dogs and vultures; and to a great distance around the scene, the air is strongly infected with the putrid effluvia from the half consumed bodies. Human bones lie strewed about in every direction.

At these festivals, religious mendicants of all descriptions, abound, who employ various devices to excite charity, such as standing on their heads, filling their eyes with mud, and their mouths with straw, or lying extended in a puddle of water. Numerous offerings of food are made to the idol, and provisions which have been presented, and not consumed by him or his priests, are purchased at a high price on account of the sacred character which they have acquired. On this great festival, the distinction of castes is forgotten; all descriptions of pilgrims feast and associate with the Brahmins. Some old persons come on purpose to die in the presence of Juggernaut, measuring the whole distance with their bodies.

SUTTEE. The most shocking practice of self-immolation is the suttee, or the burning of widows on the funeral pile of their husbands. The ceremonies are various, and last from a quarter of an hour to two hours. Sometimes the widow is placed in a cavern prepared for the purpose, under the pile on which her husband's body is placed, and sometimes on the pile by the side of the corpse. When the husband is not a Brahmin, it is not necessary that the corpse itself should be burned with his widow, but a garment, his slippers, or his walking staff, is accepted as a substitute.

Since the year 1756, it is computed that seventy thousand widows have been thus immolated. A Brahmin has the privilege of marrying as many wives as he pleases. One who died at Bogna had upwards of a hundred; twenty-two of whom were burned at his death. The fire was kept burning three days, four of his wives were sisters, two of whom underwent the suttee; more recently, a Rajah of the hill country had twenty-eight wives burned with his body. In 1829, lord Bentwick, the company's governor general, abolished the practice in the provinces directly subject to his control. The Brahmins of Bengal remonstrated against, and appealed from, this order, and sent an English lawyer from Calcutta to prosecute their appeal before

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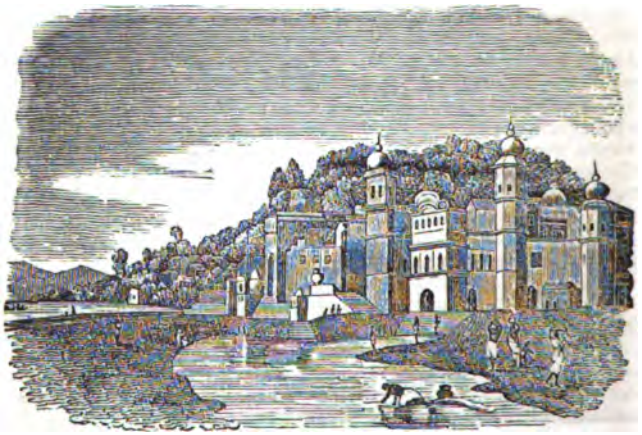
the privy council. It was unsuccessful, and the suttee is not allowed in any of those provinces.

The suttee is not absolutely enjoined by the Vedas, but recommended as highly meritorious, and ensuring happiness both to the husband and the devoted widows. The religion of the Hindoos recommends self-immolation in various forms; drowning in the Ganges is a sure passport to future happiness; female and imperfect children of both sexes, and the aged and infirm, are immersed in the Ganges, answering the double purpose of ridding their friends of the burthen of their support, and insuring to them a state of felicity.

For this object, a magnificent palace and temple are erected on the bank of the Ganges, to which pilgrimages from distant



Hindoo palace and place of pilgrimage on the bank of the Ganges.

parts are performed, and from which the aged, the deformed, and infants, are plunged into the sacred stream. Penance, consisting in torturing the body in every mode, is recommended as highly pleasing to their deities. Infanticide and the permitting of the aged and infirm to die of want, are allowed.

CASTES. The Hindoos, from the earliest periods to which history reaches back with any certainty, have been divided into four Tchadi or castes, each having its peculiar privileges and duties. The more honorable the caste, the more numerous and rigid are the restrictions to which its members are subject, and the more valuable its privileges. Every individual remains in the caste in which he is born, practicing its duties, and engaged in its employments. He is debarred from gaining a higher

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caste, whatever may be his merits. The castes are in the following order: 1. Brahmins; 2d. Kshatrigos, or soldiers, including also the princes and sovereigns; 3d. Voiyas, consisting of agriculturists, merchants and shepherds; 4th. Sudras, or laborers. The laws relating to the castes, are enjoined by a civil code, which, according to the Hindoo superstition, has been in force for three thousand ages; and can never be changed. The first caste, the Brahmins, is the sacred or sacerdotal, maintaining an authority more exalted, and commanding, than the priests of any other profession. In this caste there are four grades or stages; the first is the Brachmachai, into which the youth are introduced at the age of nine, and invested with the badge of the triple chord hanging over the left shoulder. In this grade he is taught to read and write, to learn the Vedas, and the efficacious forms of prayer, called Mantras, and to acquire learning. He is required to abstain from the use of the betel, a filthy Indian plant, of the same character, and answering the same purposes as tobacco among the Europeans. In this stage they are also taught the privileges of their caste, the principles of which are, the right of asking alms, not as a matter of charity, but of just claim. exemption from taxes, and from corporeal punishment, however heinous may be their crime.

The second stage of a Brahmin's life is called Grihashtha, which can take place only after he has been married and had children. His daily duties then become more multiplied, and more strictly to be performed. Every act must be done by rule. When clearing the nostrils, or doing other acts considered as impure, the Brahmin never omits to put his chord over the right ear, thereby keeping himself free from all corporeal pollution. The European custom of clearing the nose and pocketing the contents, is held in the greatest abomination by a Brahmin. When he bathes he must think of the Ganges and kiss his fingers and toes.

The third degree is that of Vena Prastha, or inhabitant of the desert; this order is now nearly extinct, or confounded with that of Sannyosia, or the fourth, which is esteemed so holy, that it imparts in a single generation a greater stock of merit than ten thousand could produce in any other sphere of life. One who has attained to this order, is believed to pass straightway to the world of Vishnu, without the penalty of transmigration. He renounces all worldly connections, takes up mendicity as a profession, and lives solely on alms. When a Brahmin is qualified, and disposed to enter this high order, he is installed with much ceremony. He must rub himself all over every morning with ashes, eat but one meal a day, never think of women, shave once a month, and wear wooden clogs. He must erect a hermitage for himself on the bank of some river or beside some lake, where he must constantly reside. The act of the highest merit is to subdue all sensation, and retain the breath with such perseve-

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rance, that the soul on quitting the body will burst through the crown of the head, and fly to re-unite itself with the great one.

The second caste is that of Kshatrigas, or warriors, descendants of the Rajahs.

The third are Voiyas. Their duties consist in the labors of the field, and of the garden, in the breeding of cattle, and in the business of merchandize. They are exempt from military duty.

The fourth and most numerous caste, are the Sudras. Their business is servile labor. They are compelled to work for the Brahmins, being considered as having been created solely for their use. They are not allowed to acquire property, because it would give pain to the Brahmins. The Vedas must never be read or explained, or any instruction given to this caste; and whoever should dare to instruct them in the mode of expiating sin, is doomed to sink with them into Asamvrita, one of the lowest hells, with which their future state is provided. Any of the three higher castes, though having their appropriate spheres of action, are allowed in cases of necessity to engage in the employments of the inferior, but in no case are the inferior allowed to engage in the employments of the superior.

In consequence of irregular intermarriages, of persons of different castes, children are born who belong to no caste, and for whom no employment is assigned. They are called *Burren Sunker*, and subsist either on charity or plunder; associating with outcasts, or those who for some actual offence have forfeited their castes, and been expelled; they have acquired a savage and lawless character, and become a terror to the other inhabitants; sometimes exacting from them a regular tribute as the price of exemption from plunder. Thirty-six branches of this impure class are specified in their sacred books, differing in the elements of their origin, and in degree of degradation; all are obliged to keep at a great distance from their superiors. The Pariahs, the lowest of this class, are the most degraded of human beings. Their approach is sufficient to pollute a neighborhood. They may never enter a street where a Brahmin lives. When they transgress, the higher castes will not assault them in person for fear of pollution, but through the medium of others will cause them to be beaten, and sometimes killed, without dispute or inquiry.

The writer's apology for protracting this article to an unusual length, is that, with some unimportant variations, it is descriptive of the present moral and religious condition of Eastern Asia, comprehending more than one fourth of the human family. Benevolent societies in Europe and America have of late years been alive to their condition. Numerous missionaries have been sent out, with a view of bettering their state, and bringing them to a knowledge of the Christian faith. Their labors have been attended with partial success; and some thou-

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sands have been led to embrace Christianity. Still, compared with the millions of pagans in the east, their number is small.

CEYLON. The isthmus of Ceylon, usually called an island, in the Indian ocean, at the south-eastern extremity of the coast of Coromandel, is united to the continent by a singular chain of sand banks, to which is given the name of Adam's bridge. It lies between 6° and 10° north latitude, and contains 20,000 square miles. Its population is variously estimated from one and a half to two millions, principally natives; and of two characters, the Weddas, a rude people living in the interior of the forests, with little of social order, depending on the chase for subsistence; and the Cingalese, who have attained a certain degree of civilization, practice agriculture, weave cotton, work in iron and gold, and possess a written language. The Portuguese first established commercial settlements in Ceylon, soon after their discovery of a passage to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. Their cruelty, avarice, and fanaticism, evinced in suppressing the religion of the natives, and converting them to Christianity by violence, made them so much abhorred, that the Cingalese united with the Dutch in 1603, in driving them from the island. The Dutch soon became as much the objects of hatred as the Portuguese. They held possession of some posts on the island, and monopolized its trade until 1795, when it was taken possession of by the English, and has ever since belonged to the British government; the East India company never having any settlement or interest in the island. Its principal production for exportation is from the cinnamon tree, which grows to the height of thirty feet. The spice is obtained by cutting off the branches of three years growth, scraping off the outer bark, and peeling the inner, which is cut into slices, dried in the sun, and packed for use. From the refuse of this operation, and from the leaves, fruit and roots of the tree, is extracted a highly fragrant oil, of a thick consistence, used for the same purposes as the spice, and from which also candles were formerly made for the use of the king.

The most considerable pearl fishery is in a spacious bay, off the west coast of Ceylon. The pearl is contained in an oyster which is fished up by divers, trained to the business, from the bottom, in water from ten to twenty feet in depth. Each oyster usually contains several pearls. The fishing season lasts about twenty days, and employs 6000 men. The ground is sometimes rented for $260,000. Its nett proceeds in 1798, were estimated at $850,000.

AUSTRALIA. The remaining British possessions in the east are at Australia and Van Dieman's Land. Proceeding from the Cape of Good Hop eon the same parallel of latitude, eastward over 135° of longitude, the navigator arrives at Aus-

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tralia, in the South Pacific ocean, a country, which on its first discovery was supposed to be a third continent; at a later period it has been circumnavigated. It is found to be an island of immense extent, containing a greater superficies than Europe. It lies between 10° and 39° south latitude; its length is estimated at 2,600, and its breadth at 2,000 miles, and its superficies at 3,500,000 square miles. Little is known of the country except its coasts; these estimates are therefore necessarily conjectural. Sidney, the seat of government and capital of the British colony, was first visited by the Dutch in 1605, and by captain Cook in 1770. Botany Bay, on the eastern coast of the island, was selected by the British government in 1787, as a place to send their convicts; since that time it has been the general receptacle of persons of that description. The first vessel loaded with convicts arrived there in 1788. The town of Sidney contains 7000 inhabitants; has a bank with a capital of $100,000; a savings bank, and two public schools. There are several other considerable settlements on the island. The whole eastern coast of Australia, is called New South Wales.

VAN DIEMAN'S LAND. South of Australia is the island of Van Dieman's Land, between 40° and 44° south latitude. Until 1797 it was supposed to be a part of Australia. It was then circumnavigated, and found to be separated from the larger islands by Bass straits. It is estimated to contain 24,000 square miles. The European inhabitants in 1829 amounted to 20,000. The British government have encouraged its voluntary population by donations of land to emigrants, on condition of settlement. Of late years three or four vessels have annually sailed with emigrants and convicts to this region. Van Dieman's Land is preferred to Australia. This is the only experiment which has been in operation of forming a colony of convicts, and from the materials of which the colony is composed, it is not to be expected that the mass will be virtuous and orderly. A portion of the convicts desert the settlements, and associate under the name of bush rangers, and seek a subsistence by plunder. In 1820 there were on Van Dieman's Land, 28,838 horned cattle, and 182,463 sheep, belonging to the English population.

NATIVES. The natives of this portion of the world are of the lowest grade considered as human. They have large flat heads, flat noses, thick lips and eye-brows, and open mouth. A black, thick beard, and pieces of bone stuck through the cartilages of the nose for ornament, give them a disgusting appearance. The fetid odor of their bodies, increased by being besmeared with fish oil, render them objects of aversion. They are extremely lean, owing, probably, to the want of sufficient sustenance. Those on the coast live on such fish as they can take, and those

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in the interior, on worms and caterpillars, and any animals which come within their reach. They consume their food, whatever it may be, without any process of cooking. Their huts are rudely constructed of the bark of trees, in the shape of kilns or oven, with an opening in front, where they crawl in. The fire is placed near the entrance; the interior is filled with dirt and smoke where they eat and sleep promiscuously.

The women are distinguished by the amputation of two joints of the little finger of the left hand. When one is wanted for a wife, her lover lies in wait for her, in some private place, knocks her down with a bludgeon, and while besmeared with blood, carries her to his own home, marries her, and makes her his slave. Both sexes are entirely naked without any sense of shame. They appear to have little or no sense of any thing under the name of religion, or of social or moral obligation. No attempts have been made to subjugate them, because they are not worth the cost. The foregoing description is peculiarly applicable to the Geagals, a tribe inhabiting Geaga, on the south shore of Botany Bay. There are in other parts some tribes one or two stages above this condition. These have been visited by missionaries, but with little success.

West Indies. Proceeding still eastward, the traveller who wishes to view the whole British empire in one voyage, passes Cape Horn, and ascends the Atlantic to the region of the West Indies. The principal islands are sixteen in number, with which are connected several adjacent small ones. Their whole population, according to the last enumeration, was,

Whites, - - - - -	77,460
Free colored, - - -	113,890
Slaves, - - - - -	692,700
Total,	884,050

The whites, consisting of Europeans and their unmixed descendants, constitute less than a tenth part of the population, but possess all the power, and most of the wealth of the islands. Their exports to Great Britain, consisting of the products of the sugar cane and the coffee tree, amount to $30,000,000 annually, and their imports, principally of British manufactures, to nearly $20,000,000. Jamaica is the principal island, having more than half the population and wealth of the whole. Its capital, Kingston, is in latitude 18° north, and longitude 77° west from London. It is the residence of the governor general, who has the superintendence of all the islands, and is appointed by the crown. The inhabitants are allowed colonial assemblies for the purpose of internal legislation. Their laws are subject to the negative of the governor general.

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WEST INDIA TRADE. The British colonial system in relation to commerce, is rigidly enforced in the islands, bottomed upon the principle of exclusive benefit to the parent state. No foreign commerce is allowed, if it interfere with any supposed benefits to British trade or navigation. From the position of these islands, in relation to the United States, and the nature of their respective productions, a free trade is all important to them. Provisions and lumber are necessary to their existence; they might have them from the United States, and pay for them in their productions, at about one half of the expense at which they are obtainable from any other source. The matter of this trade has been the subject of repeated negotiations between Great Britain and the United States.

The Antilles, or West India islands, of which Great Britain and Spain are the principal proprietors, are a large cluster of islands, in the Caribbean sea or gulf, between North and South America, extending in the form of a crescent, from the coast of Florida, to the mouth of the Oronoco in Colombia. They are noted for being the first land discovered by Columbus in his search for a western passage to the East Indies; supposing he had arrived at his object, he gave them the name of the Indies. They retained the name after the mistake was discovered, with the addition of *West*, to distinguish them from the other Indies. They have been the subject of frequent contest between the different powers of Europe, and are noted for being the place where African slavery was first systematically introduced.

ABOLITION OF THE SLAVE TRADE AND SLAVERY. Until a recent period, slaves were the only operatives in the West Indies. By the persevering efforts of Mr. Wilberforce, and other philanthropists, the African slave trade was prohibited by act of the British parliament in 1807. The scenes of cruelty, rapine, and murder, which were brought into view upon that occasion, went far to induce other nations to follow the example. The effect was to better the condition of the slaves, by making it the interest of their masters to preserve and propagate the race which they had on hand. In 1833, an act was passed by the British parliament, the leading features of which were, that slavery should be wholly abolished; that all born after the passage of the act should be free at their birth; that those under a certain age should be apprenticed to their masters for a given time, after which they should be free; and that those above that age should labor for their masters on wages at a fixed and low price, each having two days in a week allowed him for his support, and when the wages on this principle had amounted to a sum deemed to be adequate to the value of the slave, deducting all expenses, he should be free. The sum of $38,800,000, was appropriated by parliament to be given to the slave-holders, as a compensation for their losses. This sum, averaging $115 for

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each slave, is to be apportioned among the slave-holders according to an estimated value of their slaves.

NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES. The only remaining possessions of Great Britain which, in this rapid survey, we have not visited, are her North American colonies, extending from latitude 45° north, indefinitely towards the north pole, and from longitude 50° west from London across the northern portion of the American continent about 80°, or a quarter of the circle of the globe, until they meet a Russian settlement on the northern border of the Pacific. The following are the principal divisions, and their number of inhabitants according to the latest enumerations.

Lower Canada,	499,739
Upper Canada,	393,925
New Brunswick,	130,000
Nova Scotia with Cape Breton,	199,870
Prince Edward's Island,	34,666
Newfoundland,	81,517
Honduras,	3,958
Total,	1,343,675

The colonies have each a local legislature chosen by the people, and a governor and council appointed by the crown. The governor of the Canadas has a general superintendence over

Bay of Quebec.

all the colonies, and is styled governor general. Local laws are subject to the approbation of the respective colonial govern-

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ors and councils, and ultimately to the parliament of Great Britain. The judges of the higher courts are appointed and removed by the crown.*

Upper Canada, extending westerly and northerly from the Ottoway river nearly opposite Montreal, indefinitely, has much fertile vacant territory, to which the British government invites settlers by grants of land on liberal terms. Its principal towns are Kingston and York; the latter on the western border of lake Ontario, is the seat of government. Halifax, the principal town of Nova Scotia, is an important naval station. Quebec, the capital of Lower Canada, and of all the colonies contains 24,000 inhabitants, is strongly fortified by nature and art, and garrisoned by a considerable force. A magnificent bay spreads itself before the city, accessible to vessels of the largest class, secure and sufficiently capacious for a large fleet. Montreal, at the head of sloop navigation on the St. Lawrence, is the principal place of business, and the depot for the merchandize destined for the upper country and its returns. The inhabitants of Lower Canada being principally of French origin, are Roman Catholics. A large portion of those of Upper Canada, are Protestant dissenters of various denominations. Those of the other colonies are almost entirely Protestants.

The Canadas have within a late period, attracted much attention in the United States, in consequence of several revolutionary symptoms having appeared there. The attempts however, hitherto made, have been unsuccessful, and do not seem to have met with the general approbation of the inhabitants.

Much sympathy is felt for the "patriots" as they designate themselves, by many of the citizens of the United States living near the Canada line, some of whom have evinced so much inclination to interfere, that the United States government were obliged to send troops to preserve neutrality on our borders.

The chief complaint on the part of the dissatisfied Canadians is, that the British government has too much power in the provinces, the governor and council being appointed by the crown, and the assembly only elected by the people; the government thus holding a preponderating influence, which enables them to thwart the wishes of the people as expressed through the popular branch. This dissatisfaction is chiefly confined to Lower Canada.

The contiguity of these colonies to the United States have given rise to several interesting questions, showing how difficult it is for adjoining independent communities to avoid collision. One of the earliest subjects of dispute grew out of the Newfoundland fisheries. By the treaty of 1783, the United States

*In July, 1840, an act was passed by the British Parliament, by which the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada were united under one government.

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with much difficulty secured to themselves the right of taking fish on the coast of Newfoundland, and drying them on its uninhabited shores. In negotiating the treaty which terminated the war of 1812, the British claimed that the declaration of war abrogated all rights dependent on former treaties. The treaty passed over the subject in silence. The Americans renewed their fishing business after the war in their usual manner. They were interrupted and their vessels seized by British ships of war. The matter was afterwards settled by compromise. Another subject is the American claim to the free navigation of the river St. Lawrence. The refusal of the British government led to the opening of the Erie and Champlain canals and other internal improvements, by which the productions of the west reach the markets of the east, and the return merchandize reaches the west, on much better terms than they could through the channel of the St. Lawrence, with all the facilities which the British government could give it. The United States have therefore ceased to press the subject. Disputes have also arisen relative to the boundary of the remote north-west, and the occupancy of a position on the Pacific, serving little other purpose than to show the tenacity with which Great Britain maintains her claims to any portion of territory within her reach, however remote or unimportant it may be.

By refusing to the United States the free navigation of the St. Lawrence, and thereby hastening the opening of the Erie canal, Great Britain not only lost a profitable commerce from the southern border of the lakes, but exposed her whole trade from the north-west to be directed to New York. To counteract this effect, the Welland canal, connecting the waters of lake Erie with those of Ontario by a sloop navigation has been formed. This enterprize was commenced in 1824, and the canal opened for navigation in 1829. It is an undertaking of a private company, with a capital stock of $888,000, divided into 16,000 shares. The Rideau canal, a work adapted to sloop navigation, commences at Kingston near the outlet of lake Ontario, and extends to the Ottoway river, near Montreal, a distance of upwards of one hundred miles. A sloop navigation is now opened from that city to the western extremity of the upper lakes, a distance of nearly a thousand miles.

THE TREATY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN. The North Eastern Boundary question, or the question what was the true line of division between the north eastern portion of the United States and the British American provinces, has long been a subject of controversy between the two countries; this subject matter of contention has finally been adjusted by a treaty between Great Britain and the United States, by which the two governments mutually abandoning the

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lines heretofore respectively claimed, have adopted a new line between the two, as a compromise measure.

The treaty was signed by Lord Ashburton, special minister from Great Britain, and Daniel Webster, Secretary of State, on the 9th of August, 1842, and on the 20th of the same month was ratified by the U. S. Senate, by a vote of thirty-nine yeas to nine nays. The treaty provides that "all the water communications, and all the usual portages along the line from Lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods; and also Grand Portage, from the shore of Lake Superior to the Pigeon River, as now actually used, shall be free and open to the use of the citizens and subjects of both countries." The third article we copy entire: "In order to promote the interests and encourage the industry of all the inhabitants of the countries watered by the river St. John and its tributaries, whether living within the state of Maine or the province of New Brunswick, it is agreed that, where, by the provisions of the present treaty, the river St. John is declared to be the line of boundary, the navigation of said river shall be free and open to both parties, and shall in no way be obstructed by either; that all the produce of the forest, in logs, lumber, timber, boards, staves, or shingles, or of agriculture not being manufactured, grown on any of those parts of the state of Maine watered by the river St. John, or by its tributaries, of which fact reasonable evidence shall, if required, be produced, shall have free access into and through the said river and its said tributaries, having their source within the state of Maine, to and from the seaport at the mouth of the said river St. John, and to and round the falls of said river, either by boats, rafts, or other conveyance; that when within the province of New Brunswick, the said produce shall be dealt with as if it were the produce of said province; that in like manner the inhabitants of the territory of the upper St. John, determined by this treaty to belong to her Britannic majesty, shall have free access to and through the river for their produce, in those parts where the said river runs wholly through the state of Maine; provided always, that this agreement shall give no right to either party to interfere with any regulations not inconsistent with the terms of this treaty, which the governments respectively, of Maine or of New Brunswick, may make respecting the navigation of the said river, when both banks thereof shall belong to the same party." The United States government agrees to pay and satisfy the states of Maine and Massachusetts for all claims for expenses incurred by them in protecting the heretofore disputed territory, and making a survey of the same in 1838, and also agrees to pay these states the sum of three hundred thousand dollars in equal moieties, on account of their assent to the new line of boundary, and in consideration of equivalent received therefor from the British government.

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It is also agreed by the treaty, "that the channels in the river St. Lawrence, on both sides of the Long Sault Islands, and of Barnhart Island; the channels in the river Detroit, on both sides of the island of Bois Blanc, and between that island and both the American and Canadian shores; and all the several channels and passages between the various islands lying near the junction of the river St. Clair, with the lake of that name, shall be equally free and open to the ships, vessels, and boats of both parties." This treaty is exclusively confined to the settlement of the North Eastern Boundary, with the exception that an agreement is entered into which provides that each government shall maintain in service on the coast of Africa a sufficient naval force of not less than eighty guns, to enforce separately the laws of the respective countries in relation to the suppression of the slave trade; and the parties to the treaty agree to unite in all becoming remonstrances with any power which sanctions the importation of African negroes; another agreement is also concluded, by which the two countries are to deliver up to justice on the proper official requisition, and on sufficient evidence of criminality, all persons found within the jurisdiction of either country, charged with murder, or assault with murderous intent, or piracy, arson, robbery, forgery, or the utterance of forged papers. As the boundary line claimed by the United States included territory within the state of Maine, and partly owned by Massachusetts, the general government could not relinquish any of it without the consent of those two states, and this treaty was not presented to the senate until after it was approved by commissioners, appointed and duly empowered by the respective legislatures of these states.

Various conjectures have been indulged as to the permanency of the British empire in its present form. Its speedy bankruptcy and dissolution was long ago predicted in consequence of its enormous national debt. The republican principles which appeared in France, in 1790, it was expected would spread over Europe, and in their progress overturn the British empire. Events have falsified these predictions. Great Britain has been able to bear the principal burden of a twenty years' war against the French, and to double her national debt without injuring her credit or disturbing her system of government. Although it is certain that her national debt can never be paid; and that many of the principles on which her government rests are unfounded; yet her duration for a long period on the present basis is confidently expected. There are some conservative principles which will probably give it permanency. The public creditors are, with few exceptions, British subjects, and in that view the national debt is one due from the whole to a part of the people, and the general mass of property is not thereby diminished.

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CONCLUDING REMARKS.

They are uniformly opposed to a revolution, as putting their property in jeopardy. The clergy of the national establishment, all who are in any manner connected with it, and all whom they can influence; all holding offices of power, honor or profit, or sinecure places under the government; and all privileged orders, are of course its supporters; add to these, most men of property and prosperous business, who dread a revolution as putting their dearest interests at hazard.

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CHAPTER III.

France. Its extent in 1824. *Its agriculture and productions. Internal improvements. Canal of Languedoc. Rail Roads. Manufactures. Commerce. Military and naval strength. Public debt and revenue. Religion. Changes occasioned by the Revolution. Number of Roman Catholic clergy before and since the revolution. Government of France. Present constitution of France. Revolution of* 1830. *Present reigning family of France. Character and anecdotes of Phillippe first. Of his father, the duke of Orleans. Talleyrand. Paris. Its population, commerce, and police. Bordeaux. Havre. French colonial possessions. Present state of our relations with France. Spain. Population. Strength. Government. Ecclesiastical establishment. Inquisition. Its proceedings. Torture. Auto de Fe. Number of convicts. Spanish character. Madrid. Cadiz. Bull fights. Sheep and wool. Colonies. Cuba. Canaries. Andorra. Portugal. Population. Strength. Religious establishment. Convents. Government. Commerce. Agriculture. Education. Lisbon. Oporto. Colonies. Cape Verd. Madeira. Azores.*

FRANCE. France, as reduced to its ancient limits at the second restoration of the Bourbons, in 1815, lies between latitude 42° and 51° north. Its greatest extent, from Dunkirk in the north, to the Pyrenees, is 625 miles, and about the same distance from the most easterly point of Alsace, to the western point of Bretange, containing 213,800 square miles. The number of inhabitants, according to the latest census, is 33,600,000, averaging about 150 to the square mile. It is bounded on the north by the English channel and the Netherlands, on the east by Germany and the Alps of Switzerland, on the south by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenees, and on the west by the Atlantic. Baron Dupin, an eminent writer on the Statistics of France, estimates a profit of three and a half per cent. on French capital employed in agriculture.

Previous to the revolution, land was burthened with an annual tax of $100,000,000. Most of the cultivators were tenants at will, and the rent paid was chiefly in kind, being one half of the produce. The tenants also labored under several oppressive feudal restraints. Weeding and hoeing were prohibited, lest the young patridges should be disturbed. Game of the greater species, consisting of droves of wild hogs, and herds of deer, which the farmers were not allowed to kill, wandered

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about unmolested over the country, to the destruction of the crops. The Corvee, or labor upon the public roads and bridges, also fell heavy on the tenantry. One of the beneficial results to be credited to the revolution, as an offset for a portion of its evils, is the abolition of these feudal burdens. Another is the conversion of the estates of the church and nobility into national domains; and the sale of them in small portions, and on easy terms, to farmers, which has enabled the actual tenants and laborers to become proprietors in fee. The number of this description of persons has more than doubled since 1789. Agriculture is the principal business and source of wealth in France, to which its fine soil and climate strongly invites. It is not, however, managed so judiciously or profitably as in England. Rotation of crops is little practiced. Wheat in the best cultivated districts, produces an average of eighteen bushels to the acre; the English farmer obtains twenty-five. The number of horses and mules in France, is estimated at 2,500,000; of horned cattle 7,000,000; and of sheep 45,000,000. Great attention is paid to the cultivation of the vine. French wines and brandies are universally celebrated. The annual production of both is estimated at $40,000,000. The temperance reformation has produced a sensible diminution of the export of brandy from Bordeaux to the United States.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. France is far behind England in internal improvements. Its practicable roads are not more than one third in proportion to its extent. It has 900 miles in length of canals, about one third as many as in Great Britain. The principal work of this kind is the canal of Languedoc, uniting the waters of the Atlantic with the Mediterranean. It commences at the mouth of the Garonne, near Bordeaux, on the Atlantic, and enters the Mediterranean at the city of Cette. It was commenced in 1664, and finished in fourteen years, at an expense of $6,000,000, which, considering the difference in the value of money, is equal to $12,000,000 in 1830. It was one of the most splendid works of Louis XIV., the most powerful monarch of the age. The canal passes under a mountain by a tunnel 720 feet in length, a work then entirely novel, though now common. The other canals connect the interior with the Atlantic. Rail roads are of modern date in France; the first to any extent, was commenced in 1825. Since that time, various others have been projected, and are in different stages of progress. The most important one is from Paris to Havre, connecting the capital with its seaport, being a distance of 112 miles. The annual transportation on this line is estimated at 300,000 tons.

MANUFACTURING. Another point in which France is much behind Great Britain, is in the application of steam and water

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power to manufacturing purposes. This is estimated by M. Dupin, to be equal in France to the labor of 680,000 men, and in Great Britain to ten times that amount; and all the power derived from machinery of every kind, and applied to the purposes of industry in France, is supposed to be equal only to one fourth of that of England.

In the early stages of the colonization of America, France was one of the principal agents. Previous to the war of 1756, she claimed, under the name of Canada and Louisiana, much the greater part of the North American Continent. By the peace which terminated that war in 1763, she lost all her North American continental possessions, and became in relation to a navy and colonies, a second rate power. Since that period she has lost her most valuable East and West India colonies.

COMMERCE. By a late estimate, her exports are stated at $80,000,000, more than $10,000,000 of which, in silks, fine cotton, wine, and brandy, were to the United States, being more than to any other nation; they are paid for in cotton, the raw material for her manufactures, and tobacco. Her imports are stated at $82,000,000, a great portion of which is in raw material; no article being admitted which her own labor or soil can produce. The number of sailors employed in the commerce of France, since its revival after the long continued wars, is 330,000. The French navy consists of thirty-six ships of the line, thirty-five frigates, eight steam ships, and 186 small vessels, manned by 15,000 seamen. Next to Great Britain she is the greatest naval power in Europe, but so far inferior to her, that in case of a war, the French navy would serve but little other purpose than to increase that of her enemy. Her army exceeds any in Europe except that of Russia, and enables her to take an active and decided part in the contests which disturb that portion of the world. Every Frenchman is enrolled at the age of twenty, and bound to serve, if required, eight years in the army. After such service he looses all desire to return to civil life, becomes unqualified for its duties, and willing to continue in the army. From such an arrangement the French government are never in want of veteran soldiers. The military peace establishment of France exceeds 200,000 men.

PUBLIC DEBT AND REVENUE. The public debt in 1829 amounted to $552,000,000. Her annual revenue to $178,408,227, and expenditures to $163,573,508. Balance in favor of her exchequer, $14,934,719. The foregoing is taken from Baron Dupin's statistics; the sums are there put down in francs of eighteen cents and four mills each, and are sufficiently accurate for the purpose of a general view. They are here stated in dollars, more readily to give the reader a definite idea of the amount.

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RELIGION. The state religion of France from the earliest periods of its history has been the Roman Catholic. At one time the reformation made considerable progress in the kingdom, but was effectually suppressed by the massacre or banishment of all the Huguenots, as the reformers were called. Since that time only a very limited toleration was indulged until the revolution. At that period the Roman Catholic establishment consisted of 136 arch bishops and bishops, 6800 canons and priests attached to the cathedrals, and collegiate churches, 50,400 curates, 18,000 vicars, 16,000 ecclesiastics with or without benefices, 600 canonesses, 31,000 monks, 27,000 nuns, and 10,000 servants of the church, making a total of 160,000. The catholic population of France is computed at 25,000,000. The ecclesiastics are about one to one hundred and sixty souls, or one to twenty families of eight persons each; their income is $22,264,000, in the aggregate, but enjoyed principally by the bishops and high dignitaries, leaving but a scanty subsistence to the working clergy as they are called, or the actual instructors of the people.

The religion of France underwent various changes during the revolution. At one time it degenerated nearly into atheism, the reformers worshipping certain imaginary objects, under the name of virtues. They abolished the ordinary division of time into weeks, substituting in their place decades, or periods of ten days, and every tenth day for a Sabbath, devoted to the worship of their divinity. This system continued from September, 1792, to September, 1805, when Napoleon abolished it, to the great satisfaction of his subjects, and restored the Gregorian calendar, and the Roman catholic religion. The pope purchased these favors by the sacrifice of principle, in consenting to crown him, whom he had frequently denounced as a usurper, and afterwards sanctioned his divorce without any other reason than Napoleon's pleasure. By the revolution of 1830, the Roman catholic religion ceased to be the state religion of France. With some provision for present incumbents, the American principle of separating the religious from the civil concerns of the nation was adopted.

The Orleans dynasty of 1830 has been the patron of education. In the present French cabinet is a minister of public instruction, having its general superintendence throughout the kingdom. In a report to the king on the subject of his charge in 1833, the minister, Gaigot, declared that no national education not founded on Christianity, can be of any essential benefit in France, and that the religion of the Bible should be made the basis of public instruction, and directed that the New Testament should be put into the hands of every child in the public schools. The number of newspapers published in the kingdom in 1832, was 343, one half of which were published at Paris.

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GOVERNMENT. From the earliest periods of history, until the revolution, which commenced in 1789, France was an absolute hereditary monarchy, the crown descending to the eldest male heir of the last reigning monarch, to the exclusion of females. The feudal system, with all its odious features and burdens prevailed, and was much less ameliorated than in England. The king governed according to his pleasure, without the intervention of any legislative body.

The present government of France consists of three branches, the king, the chamber of peers, and the chamber of deputies.

The king holds the executive power, commands the naval and military forces, declares war, makes treaties, and appoints all the officers of government. He also makes the ordinances necessary for executing the laws.

The chamber of peers were formerly hereditary, but are now nominated for life, by the king, who is obliged to select them from those who have held public offices of certain kinds. The chamber of peers cannot act in its legislative capacity, unless the chamber of deputies is also in session.

The chamber of deputies is composed of members who are chosen every five years, by 459 colleges distributed among the departments, according to their population. The king convokes the chamber of deputies, and he may dissolve it, but in this case he must convoke a new one within three months.

A Frenchman, to be eligible as a deputy, must be thirty years of age, and pay a direct tax of 500 francs; and to be an elector, he must pay a direct tax of 200 francs.

The number of electors in France in proportion to the whole population, is as one to 196.

A single fact will show the limited state of suffrage in that country, compared with the United States; the number of votes given in the state of New York, at the election of governor in 1834, was more than twice as many as the whole number of electors in France.

LOUIS PHILLIPPE. The present incumbent of the throne of France, Louis Phillippe I., was born October 6th 1773, and is a descendant by a younger stock, from Louis XIII. The family being of the blood royal, have always stood next the throne, and been possessed of princely revenues. The father of Phillippe took an active part in favor of French republicanism, in the early stages of the revolution. Particular circumstances, unconnected with principles, made him the personal enemy of Louis XVI. He was an active and popular member of the several assemblies, which governed France from 1789 to 1793; renounced the title of the duke of Orleans, and assumed that of Phillippe Egalite, (equality.)

In the national convention, he voted for the deposition and murder of the king. He sought to conciliate Robespierre and

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his associates by a renunciation of all claim to the throne. He was rich and popular, two qualifications which rendered him obnoxious to the Jacobins. They wanted his money, and dreaded his influence. He suffered under the guillotine, in November, 1793, by virtue of a sentence of an instrument of Robespierre's vengeance, called a revolutionary tribunal.

His son was then twenty years old; he escaped the fate of his father by flight; and became a wanderer and an exile, from 1793 to 1814, in various parts of Europe, and in the United States. His patrimonial estates were all confiscated to enrich the persecutors of his family. In his wanderings, Louis Phillippe visited Switzerland, Norway, Denmark, Lapland, and the North Cape, beyond the arctic circle; concealing his rank, and travelling under a feigned name; sometimes alone and on foot, and at others, employing himself as a schoolmaster for subsistence. After these wanderings in Europe, he arrived in Philadelphia, in October, 1796, visited most of the states from Virginia northward, descended the Mississippi to New Orleans in the winter of 1798; and in February, 1800, he arrived in London from New York. From that period, he resided principally at Twickenham in England, until the restoration of the Bourbons.

Phillippe possessed, in an eminent degree, that important and necessary quality, common to most of his countrymen, that of accommodating his mind to his circumstances. At the restoration of the Bourbons, he returned to his country, and obtained his patrimonial estates. Not adopting fully the arbitrary principles of the elder branches of the dynasty, he lived most of the time from 1814 to 1830, in retirement at his country seat at Nevilly. In the period of his exile, he became intimately acquainted with the principles of the governments which he visited.

In the revolution of July, 1830, the last which France has yet experienced, eighty-nine persons, who had been chosen to the chamber of deputies, and whose election Charles X. had annulled assembled at Paris, and appointed Louis Phillippe lieutenant general of the kingdom. On the third of August, he opened the session of the chambers in that capacity; the chamber of deputies, then consisting of the eighty-nine persons, who had made him lieutenant general, and a number of their associates, and the house of peers, consisting of those who had been created by the Bourbons.

In his address, he communicated to them the abdication of Charles and his son, and the consequent vacancy of the throne; and recommended to them to fill it. The response to this address was an invitation to the duke of Orleans, to assume the title of king of the French, under a new or amended charter providing for a more liberal and popular administration of the government. On the 9th he accepted, and took the coronation

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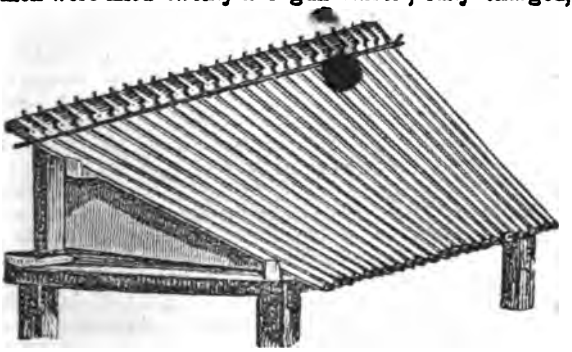
oath. Lafayette believing that a limited constitutional monarchy was the government best suited to the condition of France, and that Phillippe would administer it upon correct principles, took an active part in his elevation.

But so intoxicating is the possession of power, that in the course of five years next succeeding the elevation of this patriot king, he had become as despotic as any of his predecessors. The liberals had become dissatisfied, and the carlists continued their opposition, leaving him but few friends. July the 28th, 1835, the fifth anniversary of the last revolution was celebrated with great pomp and festivity. As the king and royal family, with a numerous train of nobles and citizens, were passing in front of the national guards, opposite the Boulevard of the temple, at 12 o'clock, an explosion took place from a window, which killed and wounded thirty-four of the train, sixteen of whom died almost instantly. Marshal Mortimer, one of Bonaparte's distinguished generals, was among the slain. A ball grazed the king's arm, and his horse was wounded in the neck. A second's delay in the discharge saved the king's life. This instrument of destruction was made in a small room about seven feet square, built of wood, braced with iron. Two uprights supported two cross-bars of wood, placed parallel to the window, on which were fixed twenty-five gun barrels, fully charged, and



Infernal Machine.

connected by a train of powder. The front cross-bar, fixed about a foot from the window, was something lower than that behind, so that the balls might reach the bodies of men passing the street on horseback. The guns were so heavily charged that five of them burst, and severely wounded the principal assassin.

In 1831, the question of abolishing the hereditary quality of the peerage, agitated France. In October, a law to that effect passed the chamber of deputies, 324 to 86. It was violently opposed in the house of peers, a great number of whom would

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be affected by its operation. In order to secure its passage in that body, the king created thirty-six new peers for life, and with the aid of their votes, the law was passed.

The duke of Nemours, the oldest son living of the reigning monarch, was born October, 1814, and elected king of Belgium by the congress of that nation, in February, 1831. His father declined for him this honor, on the ground that it would make France a party to the war between Holland and Belgium, and further disturb the peace of Europe.

On the 13th of July, 1842, the duke of Orleans, eldest son of Louis Philippe, was killed by jumping from his carriage, after the horses attached to it had become unmanageable, and while they were running away; he was thirty-two years old. He left two children, both sons, the eldest of whom, the count of Paris, now four years old, is heir to the throne of France.

TALLEYRAND. One of the most singular characters which the French revolution brought into view, was Charles M. Talleyrand, born in 1754, bishop of Autun. At its commencement, he represented the clergy of his diocese in the states general; he took an active part in abolishing the secular privileges of the clergy, and was deposed and excommunicated by the pope. During the most stormy period of the revolution, while Robespierre directed his vengeance against talent and property, Talleyrand retired to the United States, where he principally resided from 1793 to 1796, apparently engaged in commercial pursuits; but profoundly studying the character of the government and people. He is next seen at the head of the French bureau of foreign affairs, figuring in a most singular intrigue with the American envoys, Marshall, Pinckney, and Gerry, the object of which was to extort money from the United States for the use of the directory. In every change of the ruling powers, Talleyrand appears an active and influential agent, alike necessary to the republicans, to the directory, to Bonaparte, to the Bourbons and to Phillippe. He is said to have taken thirteen different oaths of allegiance, to as many ruling powers, swearing fidelity to each with equal sincerity. With a sagacity rarely to be found, he could calculate with great certainty upon the success or defeat of any aspirant, and with a versatility natural to his countrymen, shape his course to meet the crisis. While others suffered at the guillotine and lamp-post on the success of their rivals, Talleyrand was found occupying a conspicuous place in their successive councils. Mr. Morris, the American envoy at Paris, in the early period of the revolution, characterized him "as a sly, cool, cunning, ambitious, and malicious man." From the age of seventy to eighty, when nearly all his cotemporaries had fallen from the hand of violence, or the stroke of time, Talleyrand appeared directing the councils of France at home, or representing her sovereigns abroad. A short time

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previous to his decease he resigned all public employment; he died in Paris on the 17th of May, 1838.

RESULTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION. The amount of loss of lives and property, and the extent of human suffering occasioned by these revolutions in France, during a space of forty years, are not the subject of calculation, or of probable conjecture. It may be set down at some millions of lives, and some thousands of millions of property, and nearly equally divided between France and other portions of Europe. If they are now terminated, the results are an exchange of an absolute, for a limited monarchy, preserving the hereditary principle, not for any supposed divine right, but because it is the most convenient mode of designating a chief magistrate, and with a power in the people to change the succession at pleasure; the dissolution, to every practical purpose, of the order of nobility; and the separation of the civil from the religious concerns of the state.

FRENCH COLONIES. The colonial possessions of France in America, are Martinique, Guadaloupe, and other dependencies, and two or three other small places, containing in the whole a population of 228,000; several islands and factories on the coast of Africa, and several districts and factories in Asia.

Paris.

PARIS. Paris, the capital of France and the second city in Europe, is situated on the river Seine, in latitude 49° north, 112 miles from the ocean, and 225 miles southeast of London. Its population according to the latest enumeration, is 900,000; annual births, 29,000, of which upwards of 10,000, or something more than one third, are illegitimate. Paris is remarkable for the strictness of its police, and its system of espoinage. A prefect of police, whose jurisdiction extends over the whole department, has in charge the public safety, as also the preserva-

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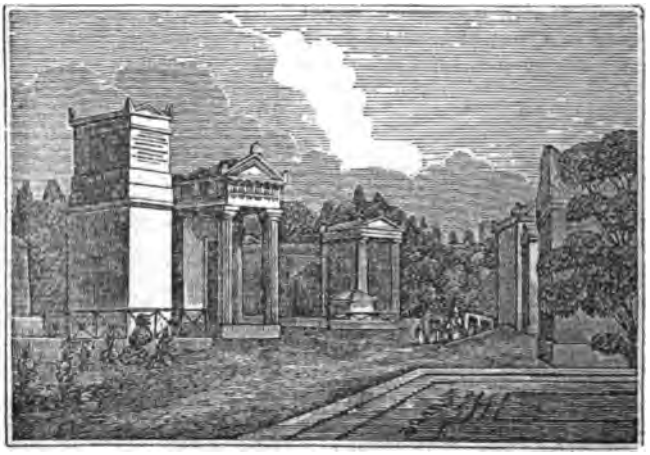
tion of the health of the city, and its protection from fire. The national guard, a corps of 80,000 men, are subject to his order. He keeps also in pay, an espoinage, employed to insinuate themselves into the company and confidence of suspicious persons, learn their objects, and report to the police any thing they may observe in word or deed unfavorable to the existing government.

The occupation, objects of pursuit, and means of support of all residents in Paris are known to the police, and those without regular employment or apparent means, are objects of suspicion. In the population of Paris it is estimated that 50,000 are strangers, resorting there for amusement, or for political and scientific objects. In proportion to its population there is less crime against person and property, and more offences against good morals, than in London. In the higher classes of European society, there is little difference in its character. In Paris it is distinguished for delicacy, refinement, and ease. The middling classes in Paris, as in other parts of France, are characterized for the elevated tone of their manners. The lower class is industrious, but improvident. In the late revolutions it has exhibited little of that ferocity which marked them in their first



Pere la Chaise.

stages. The revolution of 1830 exhibited the populace of Paris in a comparatively favorable light. The taste of the Parisians is singularly displayed in the ornaments with which their principal cemetery, PERE LA CHAISE is decorated. Its approaches are strewed with flowers, which women are constantly employed in gathering, making into chaplets, and selling to the pious, to strew around the graves of their deceased friends. The cem-

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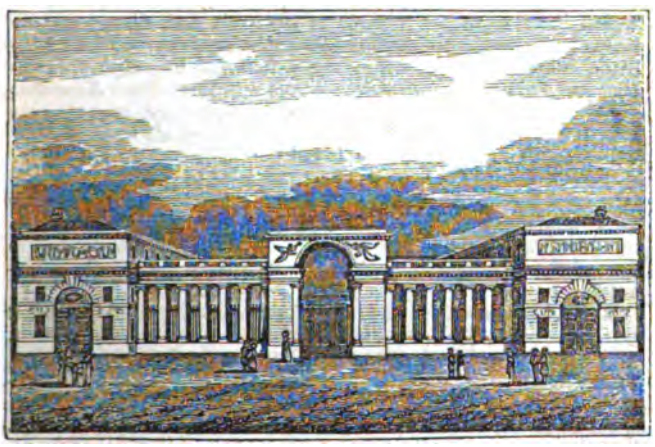
etery more resembles a flower garden than the grave yards of other countries.

The highest branches of science are cultivated in the city, and in other parts of the kingdom, with great attention. Previous to the first revolution there were twenty-three universities in the nation; that of Paris was the most celebrated. The present number of universities in the kingdom, is forty-one, with twelve thousand students. The system of primary instruction was discouraged by the Bourbons. In 1828, Dupin states that 15.000 communes were without primary schools, and that one half the people were unable to read or write. Since that period, more attention has been paid to the subject of education. There are many public buildings of great architectural beauty in Paris, among which the palace of the Legion of Honor is distinguished for its chaste appearance.



Palace of the Legion of Honor.

HAVRE. Havre is an important port at the mouth of the Seine, with a good harbor, and is the principal place where the trade from the United States to the north of France centres. Its population is 12,000. Ship navigation extends up the river forty five miles to Rouen.

BORDEAUX. Bordeaux, at the mouth of the Garonne, is the most important port on the Atlantic, and the principal place of export for wine and brandy. The average annual export of wine from this port alone is 100,000 hogsheads, and of brandy 20,000. The population of Bordeaux is 100,000.

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MARSEILLES. Marseilles is the principal commercial port on the Mediterranean, and from its mild climate and healthy situation, is a great resort of invalids in pursuit of health. Its population is 115,000. Toulon on the Mediterranean, and Brest on the Atlantic, are the principal stations of the French navy, and are strongly fortified.

RELATIONS OF FRANCE WITH THE UNITED STATES. Our relations with France have recently been disturbed by a singular course pursued by the French government. The history of the subject is briefly this:—The American government has for years past, claimed from France an indemnity for spoliations committed by her upon our commerce. President Jackson in his message of 1829, spoke in serious terms of the necessity of bringing our claims to a settlement: the then French ministry took exception to the message, as containing a threat, under which they were not willing to act; the American minister refuted the construction put upon that document, and at the same time reminded the ministry that the message was not addressed to any foreign power, but to a branch of the American government. This statement proved satisfactory, and a treaty was entered into on the 4th of July, 1831, in which France stipulated to pay our government 25,000,000 of francs, in six annual instalments, and the United States agreed to give France certain commercial advantages. The ratifications of this treaty were exchanged at Washington in 1832, (the French king having previously ratified it,) and five days afterwards Congress passed the acts necessary to secure to France the stipulated advantages.

The government of the United States, having confidence that provision would be made for the payment of the first instalment, which became due in 1833, negotiated a draft for the amount, through the bank of the United States; this draft the government of France allowed to be protested.

Louis Phillippe expressed his regret to our minister at Paris, that the chambers had not made the appropriation for the payment of the sum agreed on in the treaty, and the French minister in this country stated to our government that the subject of the appropriation should be pressed on the chambers as soon as possible. Notwithstanding these assurances, the French chambers met on the 31st of July, 1834, and also on the first of December, without paying the least attention to the subject of appropriation.

In his message of December, 1834, President Jackson, knowing at that time the failure of the chambers to act on the appropriation at the July session, recommended to Congress the expediency of adopting retaliatory measures, unless justice was speedily done us.

France pretended that this recommendation was insulting to

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her dignity, recalled her minister, offered passports to our minister, and gave notice to the chambers that diplomatic intercourse with the American government was suspended.

Soon after, the chambers made the appropriation, *on condition* that the French government should receive satisfactory explanations of the President's message.

At this stage Great Britain offered her mediation, which was accepted by both. The question to be submitted to the mediator was, in substance, whether the United States should accept of the remonstrances of France for an imaginary insult, in satisfaction for an acknowledged debt of five millions of dollars. The French government, aware of what the decision must be on such a question, accepted of what they called an apology in the President's message of 1835, and paid the instalments which had fallen due. The apology which they found, was a simple declaration, that no insult or threat was expressed, implied, or intended, in the message complained of.

SPAIN; ITS EXTENT. The Spanish peninsula, comprehending the kingdoms of Spain and Portugal, and the republic of Andorra, is separated from France by the Pyrenees, a chain of mountains extending 400 miles, from the bay of Biscay on the Atlantic, to the gulf of Lyons on the Mediterranean, and surrounded on all other sides by the waters of the two seas. The peninsula contains 225,600 square miles; Spain, 187,110; Portugal, 38,380, and Andorra, 110.

POPULATION. Spain contains 14,000,000 inhabitants, and its present colonies, 4,000,000. It maintains an army in time of peace, of 50,000 effective men, and including invalids, pensioners, and those on the sick list, its military establishment amounts to 120,000, with an enrolled militia of 40,000. The Spanish navy consists of ten ships of the line, sixteen frigates, and thirty small vessels, manned with 14,000 men.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Spain is an absolute monarchy, with no constitution, and with few restrictions to regulate its exercise. At an early period, Spain had a political body called a cortes, consisting of the nobility and clergy of the first rank, of several orders of knights, and representatives of the principal cities. Neither their numbers nor their powers were defined. When assembled they assumed important functions, and were found to be a troublesome restraint on monarchy; they were abolished by Charles the first, in 1538. In the different periods of the French revolution, Spain was first at war with that nation, and then subjected to its control. Within the last thirty years it has undergone several revolutions, the final result of which has been the re-establishment of its ancient despotism.

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INTERFERENCE OF THE HOLY ALLIANCE. In 1820, the holy alliance, desirous to prevent any revolution favorable to the liberties of the people, took the affairs of Spain into their keeping. They demanded of Spain the abolition of the cortes, and of the constitution of 1812, and the restoration of Ferdinand to absolute power. To enforce these claims, France, under their direction, in 1823, marched an army of 100,000 men into Spain, and being joined by a considerable party of absolutists, under the influence of the clergy, reinstated Ferdinand in absolute power. Clothed once more with despotic authority, he sought to re-establish the inquisition; but by the advice of the holy alliance he was induced to abandon this object, and to make some concessions to the people.

From 1823, Ferdinand continued to govern Spain in the character of a weak, bigoted despot, under the influence of ecclesiastics, until his death in 1833. He died at the age of forty-nine, and left a female child two years old, whom he declared by a royal decree a short time before his death, to be his successor, and her mother, the queen, to be regent of the kingdom, during the minority. He left also a brother, Don Carlos, who, until the birth of this child, was heir presumptive to the crown. In that character he had attached to him a large corps of expectants. By promises of adherence to the ancient regimen, he had secured the favor of all the ecclesiastics and absolutists. To the party of the queen regent, was attached the last ministry of Ferdinand and the liberals, or those in favor of a constitutional government. The hereditary right was in the infant queen. Thus arranged, and nearly equally balanced, the inhabitants of Spain have engaged in a furious civil war, butchering each other by hundreds, to determine whether they shall be governed by a bigoted zealot, or an infant female.

ECCLESIASTICAL ESTABLISHMENT. The ecclesiastical establishment of Spain, previous to the French revolution, numbered 256,000 incumbents; one to fifty-three souls. In 1826, they amounted to 146,696 persons; one to ninety-two souls. Of these, sixty-one were archbishops and bishops; 55,608 officiating clergymen under the various names of canons, prebends, vicars, and curates; 13,000 hermits and pilgrims; 61,327 monks belonging to convents, and 31,400 nuns. The church income derived from its real estate, is estimated at $51,000,000. That derived from tithes, confessions, &c. at twice that sum. It would be a matter of much consolation to the philanthropists, when viewing the present condition of Spain, if this corps of ecclesiastics supported at the public expense, were employed in diffusing useful knowledge and correct morals among the people. But the reverse is the case.

The clergy have the direction of the education and literature of the nation, and one of their principles is, that the bible is not

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to be read, or trusted in the hands of the people, because it may lead to unprofitable discussions and heresies. The people are to receive the decrees of the church as promulgated by the pope and his subordinate ecclesiastics, as their rule of faith, without question. An edict of March, 1819, contains a long list of prohibited books, not allowed to be read by any one, embracing every book supposed to contain revolutionary principles, or any thing unfavorable to the inquisition, the clergy, the Roman Catholic religion, or monarchical power. The importation of Spanish books printed out of the country, is punished by four year's confinement to the gallies. The efforts of Ferdinand and his bigoted corps of ecclesiastics, have been to keep the people in ignorance.

INQUISITION. The inquisition which has been recently abolished in Spain, is one of the greatest engines of oppression which the ingenuity of men in power have ever been able to invent. It is bottomed upon the principle that the pope is infallible; and that the church under his direction has a right to prescribe creeds and forms of worship, and to extirpate heresy or opinions differing from those thus enjoined, by pains and penalties extending to death. To effect this, there must be informers and prosecutors, to search out heresy, tribunals to judge of it and pass sentence upon heretics, and executive officers to carry their decisions into effect. Hence the inquisition, with its various appendages.

The immediate subject of the first operations of this engine, was the sect of Albigenses, which appeared in the 12th and 13th centuries in the south of France, denying the supremacy of the pope, and the infallibility of the church, and adopting the principles of the primitive Christians. The project of extirpating these rebellious members of the church, and extending the papal power by means of the inquisition, was adopted by Innocent III., who ascended the papal chair in 1198, and was perfected by his successors.

This tribunal, called the holy office, or holy inquisition, was under the immediate direction of the papal chair. Its business was to seek out heretics, or adherents to false doctrines, and to pronounce sentence against them to the extent of taking their lives and property. Its proceedings were the reverse of every thing which savored of fair investigation, and contrary to the practice of civil tribunals. The informer was both concealed and liberally rewarded. The accused was obliged to criminate himself. Suspicious persons were seized and thrown into prison. Mendicant monks in great numbers were employed to search out and inform against heretics.

This instrument did not find its way into Spain until the year 1478, when it was introduced with all its formidable appendages. Thomas de Torqueneda, father confessor to cardinal Men-

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doza, was appointed the first grand inquisitor. He had in his employment 200 familiars, serving him as spies and informers, and rewarded according to the number and quality of their victims. At the first *Auto de fe*, act of faith, seven apostates and obstinate heretics were burned, and a much greater number became penitents, that is, retracted and publicly renounced their principles, through fear of the flames. Two thousand were condemned to be burned the first year of its operations in Spain, and a great number fled the kingdom.

The first public ordinance of Torqueneda, dedicating this tribunal to the service of God, bears date in 1484; it directs that the grand inquisitor shall fix a period from thirty to forty days, within which heretics and those who have relapsed from the faith, shall deliver themselves up to the inquisition. Penitent heretics and returning apostates, though pardoned, can hold no office; they are not allowed to be lawyers, or physicians, or lessees, or to wear gold or silver, or to ride, or carry arms, on penalty of being declared guilty of a relapse, from the punishment for which there is no escape. Those who did not surrender within Torqueneda's prescribed time, were irrecoverably deprived of their property. The absent and the dead might be informed against and convicted, provided the familiars would give evidence against them. The bones of those who were tried and condemned after death, were dug up and burned, and their property confiscated. In its first stages the powers of the inquisition were not accurately defined, and on that account were the more dangerous. It received a regular organization in 1484, when branches were established in the different provinces of Spain, and all put under the direction of the inquisitor general. In later times the supreme tribunal has been established at Madrid, under his presidency.

THE TORTURE. This handmaid of the inquisition has been dressed in every form which ingenuity could devise, to inflict prolonged and severe pain. The modes were various, consisting, however, of four principal ones.

The first is the rack, a large open oak frame, under which the prisoner was laid on his back on the floor, with his wrists and ancles attached by cords to two rollers at the end of the frame. These rollers were moved by levers in opposite directions until the body rose to a level with the frame. Questions were then put to the sufferer, and if not satisfactorily answered by a confession of guilt, he was stretched by slow degrees until the bones started from their sockets.

A second instrument is called the *scavenger's daughter*, a broad hoop of iron, consisting of two parts fastened together by a hinge. The prisoner is made to kneel and contract himself into the smallest possible dimensions; the executioner then kneeling on his shoulders, introduces the hoop between his legs

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and compresses his victim until he is able to fasten the hoop at its extremities over his back. The time allotted to this torture is an hour and a half, during which the blood starts from the nostrils, and sometimes from the hands and feet.

A third instrument is an iron gauntlet, which could be compressed by a screw, and was used to suspend the prisoner in the air by the wrists, from two distant points of a beam. His hands being thus made fast, his feet rested on three blocks of wood placed one above the other, which are successively withdrawn and the victim by the removal of the last, left entirely suspended in the air by the wrists.

The fourth, called *little ease*, is a cage made of such dimensions and form, that the prisoner could neither stand, sit, or lie at full length, but was compelled to draw himself up in a squatting position, and remain so several days. Besides these, manacles, thumb screws, Spanish boots, and other inventions were in use to extort confession. The prisoner usually goes through an operation called torture by threats, before actual infliction. He is taken by the executioner to view the instruments, and entertained with the most frightful representations of the sufferings to be endured. If this does not have the effect, he is next placed on the machine of torture to remain some time previous to the actual infliction, being all the time earnestly urged to make the confession or disclosure desired.

AUTO DE FE. When the victim has been arrested, tried and condemned, and continues obstinate, the holy Auto de fe follows usually on the Sunday between trinity and advent. At day-break the solemn sound of the great bell of the cathedral calls all the faithful to behold the spectacle. Men of high rank press forward to offer their services on the occasion. The victims appear barefooted, clothed in the *San benito* with a conical cap on their heads. The Dominican friars, the principals of the inquisition, with their appropriate banners lead the way. Next come the penitents, who are to be punished by fines, and after the cross which is borne behind the penitents, walk the unfortunate victims doomed to death. Next follow a group bearing the effigies of those who have fled, and the bones of the dead which have been disinterred, tried and condemned; these are placed in coffins painted over with flames in terrific forms. This awful procession is closed by monks and priests, and proceeds through the principal streets to the church, where a sermon is delivered and sentence pronounced, the unhappy victims standing during this service before a crucifix on the altar, with an extinguished taper in their hands. As the church never pollutes itself with blood, a servant of the inquisition gives each of the condemned persons a blow, signifying that the holy office has no more to do with them, that the victims are delivered over to the secular power. A civil officer being then affectionately

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charged to treat them kindly, takes them into custody, binds them in chains, and leads them to execution. They are then asked in what faith they choose to die; those who answer in the catholic, are put to death before burning, the others are burned alive. These Autos de fe were spectacles eagerly resorted to by the people. An attendance upon them was enjoined by the priests, and considered a highly meritorious act. Such was the inquisition in the times of its most dreadful activity. It was a part of the religious system of Spain for a period of 250 years, breaking down the spirit and paralyzing the industry and enterprize of the nation. It was bottomed upon the principle that one set of men have a right to control the religious opinions of others, and exhibits the principle of persecution carried out to its extent. The inquisition published annually a list of prohibited books, containing, with some infidel and immoral works, many innocent and excellent ones. The effects of this institution, though it has been recently abolished in Spain, and its monarch prohibited from reviving it by the holy alliance, are still visible in the Spanish character. The number of its victims from 1481 to 1808, is 341,921, of whom 31,012 were burned, 17,649 burned in effigy, and 291,456 subjected to severe penalties.

Although relieved from the terrors of the inquisition, the people still groan under the evils of civil and ecclesiastical despotism. Any thing like a free press is unknown. Newspapers and other periodicals, the great source of information in modern times, are not allowed, except such as the court and clergy permit, and of course none but such as support their claims. The Spanish character is such as this system might be expected to produce; gloomy, bigoted, jealous, and revengeful. Spain, one of the most pleasant and fertile countries in Europe, is more sparsely inhabited than any other possessing equal advantages. The nation is not the residence of foreigners, and is seldom visited, except for purposes of business.

MADRID. Madrid, the capital of Spain, stands on an elevated plain near the centre of the kingdom, in latitude 40° north, 200 miles from the sea, and at elevation of 2,200 feet above tide water, and contains a population of 200,000. The city is noted for being the principal scene of *bull fights*, an amusement almost peculiar to Spain. Bull fights are got up in the capital, and all the large cities, by private persons, for their own emolument, or for the benefit of some public institution. In Madrid they are exhibited twice a week in the summer season for the benefit of the general hospital. The income from one of these exhibitions is usually about $2000, and the outlay about one, which goes principally to pay the combatants their stipulated wages. They are held in a large amphitheatre, having circular seats, rising one above another, with rows of boxes over them, the whole encircling a large arena, the scene of the combat. The poorest laborer

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saves a portion of his small earnings, to enable him to attend the exhibition. A surgeon and a priest are always in attendance, the one to administer the resources of his art to the wounded, and the other to afford the consolations of religion to the dying combatants. The spectators being seated, the bull fighters march into the arena, the procession being headed by a magistrate; they have different parts assigned them. As soon as the corregidor, the master of ceremonies, gives the signal, the bulls are loosed from the stalls; the pickadores commence the attack on horseback. They are armed with long and light spears, and mounted on horses blinded with fillets. The chulas or tormentors carrying long scarlet scarfs, pass between the posts of the balustrade which separates the arena from the spectators. Next are the matadors, holding a long sword in one hand, and a small banner in the other. A flourish of trumpets precedes the combat, the gates are thrown open, and the pickadores with couched lances prepare for the fight. The bull rushes into the arena, and runs around every part, endeavoring to find a place for escape. Becoming enraged he strikes the ground with his horns, and attacks one of the pickadores, who receives him with his lance, driving it with all his strength against the bull; but as the iron point at the end is purposely blunted, it can only gall him. He then becomes more furious, and rushes on some of the other pickadores. If the men are not very dexterous, or their lances break, they are dismouuted, and their gored horses lie wounded or dead on the arena. The horsemen themselves, though cased in iron, would probably be killed, were it not for the chulas, who at this juncture come forward, and waving their banners, turn aside the animal. When a sufficient number of horses and horsemen have been killed or wounded to satisfy the calls of the spectators, the living ones retire and leave the field to the chulas, to whom the perilous task is assigned of plunging the banderilla into the body of the bull, at the junction of the neck and shoulders. This weapon is a small staff about two feet long, furnished at the forward end with a small bent spike, and charged at the other with squibs and crackers. The man with this instrument places himself in front of the animal, passes his arms between his horns, and fixes the instrument between the neck and shoulders. If he misses the mark, he is invariably wounded or tossed in the air by his furious adversary, amid the shouts of the spectators. Tormented with the spike sticking in his neck, and with the firing of the crackers, the bull bounds, bellows, and attacks every object which comes in his way. A flourish of trumpets now announces the catastrophe. The matador, or bull-killer, assisted by four chulas, holding in one hand a sword, and in the other an unfurled banner, presents himself with great gravity, as the most important actor in the scene. The flag which he displays attracts the attention of the bull. The adversaries look at each other a moment, the one to satisfy his rage, and the

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other to ward off the attacks. The animal springs forward, directing his blow at the flag; and passing under the left arm of the matador, who with his right hand plunges his sword into his withers, and separating the vertebra, dispatches the victim at a stroke. The victor is hailed with the applauses of the whole assembly, and if he have the address not to lose his hold on the sword until he can withdraw it from the animal and present it to the spectators, the ladies crown him with flowers, and the gentlemen load him with dollars. But if the animal does not die near the matador, or reaches any other spot before his death, than that which is prescribed by the rules of the exhibition, hissess and groans are the reward of the combatant. If one matador is killed, the spectators shout *bravo*, until the bull is dispatched by another. The people are not satisfied until ten or twelve bulls, and about as many horses are killed; and if a combatant loses his life, it adds to the zest of the entertainment. Such is a bull fight in its highest perfection in the capital of Spain, where the royal family, and the ministers and grandees attend. It is imitated in other cities with more or less of its disgusting scenes, according to their population and means.

CADIZ. Cadiz is the principal seaport, and one of the handsomest cities in Spain. It is situated at the extremity of a tongue of land projecting from the isle of Leon into the sea. Its

City of Grenada.

population is 100,000. While Spain had colonies in America, it was the centre of her colonial trade, and is now the principal port for the commerce, between Spain and the United States.

Grenada is the third city of Spain, capital of the province,

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and the last from which the Moors were driven in 1492; it is pleasantly situated, partly on hills, and partly on a plain at their base, the seat of a great central court of justice for the south of Spain, and of a university.

Spain is a country of mountains and valleys, peculiarly adapted to the pasturage of sheep. The Pyrenees extend the whole length of its northern border. Catalonia, a northern province of the kingdom, contains Montserrat, rising 3000 feet above the level of the sea, and 24 miles in circumference, the favorite residence of hermits and monks.

Montserrat.

SHEEP. Spain has but two important staples for exportation, wool, and the produce of the vine. She has long been in possession of an excellent breed of fine woolled sheep; and until the war of the French revolution, exclusively so, their exportation being prohibited by severe penalties. Since that period they have spread over large portions of Europe and the United States; and are found to adapt themselves to a considerable variety of climate. The finest wool is now raised in Saxony, and other parts of the north of Germany. The little profit which Spain now derives from her wool, affords a striking contrast to what it was when she possessed the monopoly; at the same time the world at large is receiving great benefits from the extended production of this important staple. The number of sheep in Spain is 20,000,000; of these one half are migratory, consisting of large flocks belonging to the clergy, the nobility, and persons connected with the court. Two shepherds are allowed to a flock of a thousand, and in that proportion. The

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whole number of persons attached to these flocks is 16,000, almost as ignorant, and not as innocent as the animals they have in charge. They leave the heights of old Castile in the month of October, and from that time until May, lay waste the plains of Estramadura and Andalusia. On the return of summer, they are driven back to the mountains. The length of their stay in any particular place is determined by the quantity of pasturage which they find, without regard to the convenience or wishes of the owners of the soil. A space of sixteen rods in breadth is allowed for the passage of each flock. Arrived at the end of their journey, the sheep are put into pastures, the rent of which is regulated, not by contract with the proprietors, but by the laws of the Mesta. This is a society composed of the owners of the migratory flocks. One of the counsellors of state is the president. The society holds an annual meeting to make laws relating to their flocks, and to regulate the terms on which the pasturage shall be furnished. These laws being sanctioned by a royal decree, are carried into effect to the great injury of all kinds of agriculture within the district affected by them.

SHEEP SHEARING. The sheep are shorn early in May, immediately before the return to their summer quarters. One hundred and twenty five persons are allotted to a thousand sheep; some to clip the wool, and others to sort, and pack it for market. It is divided into four sorts according to its fineness. The work is done in large sheds, holding from forty to sixty thousand sheep. The sheep shearing is a busy and joyous season, employing for the time all the laborers in the neighborhood, and is usually terminated by a feast.

CUBA. At the commencement of the nineteenth century, Spain held one half of the American continent in a state of colonial subjection, and in the course of twenty years she became divested of the whole. In 1801 France wrested Louisiana from her, and in 1821, the United States purchased her Florida colonies. In the intervening period, her southern colonies made themselves independent. In the West Indies, she retains the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico. The former is one of the largest and most productive of the Antilles, situated between 20° and 23° north latitude. It has a population of

Whites,	311,051
Free colored,	106,494
Slaves,	286,942
Total,	704,487

The whole amount of productions of the islands annually, is estimated at $45,634,343, principally from the sugar cane and coffee tree. Havanna is the principal city and port. It has a very convenient and strongly fortified harbor, and is considered

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the key of the West Indies, and of the Mississippi, as all vessels bound to either must pass within a few leagues of the port. In the hands of Spain it excites no fears; in those of Great Britain it would subject the trade of both to her control. Havanna has a population of 112,000, including citizens, soldiers and strangers. Its imports amount to $15,000,000 annually, one half of which is under the American flag. The uninhabited parts of the coast having numerous inlets, furnish a convenient rendezvous for pirates; and during the war between Spain and her colonies, they were made use of for that purpose, to the great annoyance of the West India trade.

PORTO RICO. Porto Rico, the only other Spanish possession in America, is situated between latitude 18° and 19° north, is 110 miles in length, and thirty-six in breadth. It has a population of 130,000, of which 25,000 are slaves. These possessions of Spain have remained quiet, and attached to their parent state in all its revolutions, and during the whole period of the contest with its revolted colonies. Spain having adopted a liberal policy in allowing other nations to trade with these islands, it has rendered them prosperous, and preserved their allegiance.

CANARIES. The Canary islands, a possession of Spain, are considered as attached to the continent of Africa; the nearest point being 150 miles distant, but nearer than to any other continent. They are thirteen in number, situated between latitude 27° and 29° north, and contain an area of 3,000 square miles, and 180,000 inhabitants. Teneriffe and Grand Canary are the principal, and contain two thirds of the whole population. The production of the vine is the only staple of these islands.

ANDORRA. On the northeast of Spain is the little republic of Andorra, bounded on the east, south, and west, by Catalonia, and on the north by the department of Arriege, twenty-one miles in length, and eighteen in breadth, containing a population of 20,000. It is seldom noticed by geographers, and is remarkable only for being suffered to exist as an independent republic, surrounded by powerful monarchies, and undisturbed by the tumults and revolutions which have shaken them. Its affairs are managed by two Syndics, chosen by a general council of twenty-four members.

PORTUGAL. The kingdom of Portugal, in the south-western corner of Europe, and in the western section of the Spanish peninsula, lies between latitude 37° and 43° north, and is bounded west and south by the Atlantic, and east and north by Spain. Its population is 3,500,000. Before the late civil war its navy consisted of four ships of the line, and eleven frigates. The

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army amounted to 50,000 men, and the militia to 27,000. Its revenue amounted to $8,500,000, and its expenditures to $8,110,000, and public debt to $41,000,000.

ITS RELIGIOUS ESTABLISHMENTS. The religion of Portugal is the Roman Catholic, of the same general features with that of Spain. The inquisition existed here until 1820, when it was abolished by the cortes. The whole number of ecclesiastics is 30,000, being about one to a hundred souls. The king appoints the patriarch of Portugal, who resides at Lisbon, and has under his immediate direction, nine bishops; five European and four foreign. There are ten other bishops subject to the jurisdiction of the archbishops of Braga and Evora. The bishops are nominated by the king as head of the church under the pope. Portugal is the land of convents and nunneries; there are 360 of the former, inhabited by 5760 monks, with revenues to the amount of seven hundred thousand dollars; and of the latter, 138, inhabited by 5903 sisters, with a revenue of four hundred thousand dollars.

CONVENTS. These institutions, of which Spain and Portugal have the greater number in proportion to their inhabitants, are common to all Roman Catholic countries. Though the monastic order is not absolutely enjoined, it is recommended as highly meritorious. The principles common to all who attach themselves to the order, are poverty, chastity, and obedience to their rules. Each individual on joining the society, divests himself of all his property and puts it into common stock. Though each member by this operation becomes poor, the societies become rich, and are remarkably tenacious of property. In addition to motives resulting from religious considerations, a fondness for ease, disappointment in love, or in the pursuits of ambition, contributed often to the peopling of the monasteries and nunneries.

The term convent was applied indifferently to these establishments, whether designed for males or females; those for males were distinguished by the terms monasteries, and the residents, monks; and those for females, nunneries, and the residents, nuns. The nunneries were neither so rich nor so numerous as the monasteries. Nuns are under the direction of a superior called an abbess, and are not allowed to go beyond the precincts of their nunnery. No male visiters, except ecclesiastics, (not even parents,) are admitted. The first period of residence is called a noviciate, and the resident, a novice. After a sufficient length of probation, she is admitted to take the black veil, after which she cannot retract, and is considered as dead to the world and its concerns.

The system pervaded the whole of Christian Europe for a thousand years, and still prevails in all Roman Catholic countries, embracing two thirds of the Christian world. It is encour-

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aged by the pope as strengthening his power; the societies uniformly acknowledging him to be their head. There are several orders or societies of monks, the principal of which are the Dominican and Franciscan.

ABOLITION OF CONVENTS. There are several points of view in which these societies have been regarded as unfriendly to the civil interests of the state. The members were so many deductions from its productive industry. Celibacy, inasmuch as it prevailed, diminished population. The large possessions which the societies had obtained were exempt from taxation, and from military and other feudal burthens. Their religious houses were sanctuaries, where fugitives from justice were protected. These considerations, in some instances, led to their suppression, and in most countries to the discouragement of them. The nations where the protestant religion prevailed, abolished them. In the countries conquered by Napoleon, convents were suppressed for a time, but revived in Austria, Spain, Portugal and Italy, after his overthrow.

Though in a general view, these institutions are considered unfriendly to the prosperity of the state, it is admitted that they have furnished numerous schools, and done many charitable deeds. In the United States, where every citizen is free to associate for any religious or charitable purpose whatever, there have been a few instances of associations of this character, which have been noted for furnishing schools, and for deeds of charity. A society of females in Baltimore, constituting a nunnery, called the sisters of charity, voluntarily tendered their services, and gratuitously labored in nursing the sick at the hazard of their lives, during the prevalence of the cholera in 1832.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Portugal is an absolute monarchy. Previous to 1640 it was a dependency of Spain. A revolution then took place, which had placed the house of Braganza, the present reigning dynasty, on the throne. This occasioned an eight years' war with Spain, which terminated the political relations of Portugal with that kingdom, and produced a connexion with England, by which she purchased political independence at the expense of great commercial privileges. From the commencement of this revolution, a cortes, consisting of the nobility, the higher grade of clergy, and representatives from six of the principal cities, were occasionally assembled. These bodies formed but one chamber, and were convoked and dissolved at the pleasure of the king. The principal object of calling them together was to obtain supplies. They were allowed to petition the sovereign for a redress of grievances. In these petitions they sometimes scrutinized the affairs of government, and dwelt upon its abuses. They were always trouble-

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some to the ministry, and when not granted, produced disquiet among the people. The cortes were assembled, consequently, no oftener than the exigencies of the government rendered necessary, and in 1697, were discontinued.

BONAPARTE'S CONQUEST. Portugal, as one of the minor powers of Europe, has had little influence in its general affairs. In modern times it has been considered a satellite of Great Britain. During the French revolution she sought to maintain a neutrality; and during its early periods was enabled to do it. Portugal was too important an auxiliary to Great Britain to escape the notice of Bonaparte. He required her to adopt his favorite continental system, that of excluding all British productions from the continent of Europe. This presented the alternative of a war with one of the powers; Portugal preferred a peace with England at the hazard of a war with France. In 1807, with no other pretence of provocation than that she refused to exclude English productions from her ports, Bonaparte sent an army into Portugal, took possession of the kingdom, and as an ordinary act of his government, passed a decree that the house of Braganza had ceased to reign. The king with the royal family and court were transported to Brazil, and Portugal became a dependant of France.

Until a very recent period, Portugal has been the scene of a furious civil war between two brothers. Don Pedro and Don Miguel, contending which should govern the kingdom as despots. The controversy, after ruining the kingdom, terminated in favor of Pedro, and his daughter is now the reigning queen under the protection of Great Britain.

If there is any thing which can give the reflecting people of Europe an alarm and disgust at the claims of hereditary monarchy, it is the recent events which have taken place in the Spanish peninsula, relative to the succession to the crowns of Spain and Portugal.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES. The agriculture, manufactures, commerce, learning, and intelligence of Portugal, is such as might be expected from its political condition for the last twenty years. It can hardly be said to have either manufactures or commerce, being dependent principally on Great Britain for both. Its agriculture is confined almost entirely to the cultivation of the vine, the productions of which are its great staple. The soil and climate of Portugal are favorable to the growth of corn, but sufficient is not produced for the consumption of its inhabitants. In 1765, the government of Portugal, under the direction of Prince Pembal, then the ruling minister, ordered all the vineyards on the Tagus, the Mondego, and Rouga, to be converted into cornfields, and about one third part of them were reluctantly destroyed by virtue of this order; with a view to

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the production of corn for the consumption of the inhabitants. After the fall of that minister, to which this order greatly contributed, the vineyards were replanted.

EDUCATION. Common education is discouraged. In 1827, there were but sixteen printing offices in the kingdom, twelve at Lisbon, three at Oporto, and one at Coimbra. These are under a rigid censorship, and allowed to publish nothing but what favors the court and clergy. Their principle is, that ignorance among the common people makes the best subjects, and the best Christians.

LISBON. Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, is situated on the right or north bank of the Tagus, half a mile from its mouth. The river spreads out a mile and a half in width before the city and affords a fine harbor. It is the naval station, and the centre of the commerce of the kingdom. Previous to its invasion by the French in 1807, its population amounted to 300,000. In 1837 it had diminished to 260,000. About 1800 vessels arrive annually at this port. November 1st, 1755, the city was visited by an earthquake, the most severe and desolating which ever took place in Europe. The city then contained 150,000 inhabitants, 30,000, or one fifth of whom, were instantly destroyed. The shock took place on a holy day, when most of the people were at church; and was immediately followed by the fall of every church and convent, and most of the large public buildings and one fourth of the dwelling houses. Two hours after the shock, fires broke out in different places, and raging with unrestrained violence for three days, completed the ruin.

OPORTO. The second city for size and commerce is Oporto, on the Duero river, 160 miles north of Lisbon. It has a good harbor, and is visited by 1200 ships annually. It is the great emporium for port wine, upwards of 60,000 pipes of which are annually exported, principally to Great Britain.

COLONIES. In Asia, Portugal has several colonial possessions with an aggregate population of 576,000; and St. Thomas and Prince's islands, and several factories on the coast of Guinea. The Cape Verd islands also belong to Portugal. They are fourteen in number, situated between latitude 15° and 18° north, and have a population of 100,000. They depend almost entirely upon exchanging the productions of the vine for the necessaries of life, through the medium of foreign vessels visiting their ports.

In 1831 and '32, they suffered from a drought which almost entirely cut off their crops; having nothing to exchange, foreign vessels ceased to visit them with their usual supplies, which occasioned a famine, distressing beyond example. This elicited

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a call upon the charity of their former customers, which was answered with a good degree of liberality, and several cargoes of provisions were gratuitously sent them from the United States.

The annual imports from these islands to the United States previous to the drought, amounted to $170,425, and the exports to $104,165.

Madeira, an island off the western coast of Africa, in latitude 32° north, is another possession of Portugal, containing 407 square miles, and a population of 100,000. Its production is almost entirely wine of the richest quality, and universally celebrated. The quantity made annually is estimated at 20,000 pipes.

The Azores are a group of nine islands belonging to Portugal, in the Atlantic, between Africa and America, extending from 36° to 39° north latitude, containing 1160 square miles, and 200,000 inhabitants. St. Michael is the principal, having nearly half the whole population. The whole colonial possessions of Portugal on the coast of Africa, and islands of the Atlantic, is estimated to contain a population of one million.

An opinion is extensively prevailing in America, and gaining ground in Europe, that intoxicating liquors, including wines, are injurious to the health and morals of community; should this become general, and the use of them cease, or be greatly diminished, Portugal and her islands must be the first to feel its effects in the loss of a market for their great staple.

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CHAPTER IV.

Peninsulas of southern Europe. Italy. Its extent, rivers and mountains, population and force. Character of its inhabitants. Beggary. Robbery. Gipseys. Ancient Italy. Modern. Present political condi ion regulated by the Congress of Vienna. Meeting and proceedings of that Congress. Naples. Its political condition as fixed by the Congress. Revolution of 1820. *Carbonari. Their character and proceedings. Holy Alliance. When and by whom formed. Contents of its treaty. Its pretensions. Its real objects. King of France joins it. Great Britain refuses. Its proceedings in regard to Naples. Meetings at Trappeau and Layback. Its manifesto. Revolution suppressed by Austria. City of Naples. Lazaroni. Vesuvius. Ruins of Pompeii and Herculaneum. Calabria. Sicily. Its population, extent, and chief cities. Etna. States of the Church. Cardinals. Political condition of the States. City of Rome. St. Peter's church. Vatican. Quirinal. Peter Pence. Carnival. Lent. Ostia. Pontine marshes. Austrian Italy. Its extent, population, and strength. Venice. Milan. Mantua. Kingdom of Sardinia. Savoy. Revolution of* 1821. *Suppressed by Austria. Extinguishment of the revolutionary spirit in the south of Europe. Island of Sardinia. Turin. Tuscany. Florence. Leghorn. Modena. Parma and Piacentia. Ex-empress Louisa. Monaco. San Marino.*

ITALY. The southern section of Europe, bordering on the Mediterranean, consists of three great peninsulas, the Spanish, the Italian, and the Grecian, or the Morea; formed by indentations of that sea, called at different places, the Tuscan sea, the gulf of Venice, and the Archipelago. The Italian or middle peninsula, extends from the Alps, which separate it from France and Switzerland, 750 miles in a southeasterly direction into the Mediterranean, between the Tuscan sea and the gulf of Venice. It lies in the form of a boot, between latitude 38° and 46° north.

Its breadth towards the north is four hundred miles, in the centre one hundred and twenty-five, and gradually narrows to a point at the southern extremity. Its superficies are estimated at 95,000 square miles, its population at 22,000,000, and its standing military force at 120,000. Italy cannot be said to have a navy. Some of the larger powers maintain a few ships of war of the smaller class.

RIVERS. In the north of Italy are two large rivers, the Po, and the Adige, which rise in the Alps, and discharge themselves

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into the gulf of Venice. In southern Italy the streams proceeding from the Appenines are necessarily short and small. The Tiber, noted only for having the city of Rome on its banks, and being celebrated and magnified by the poets and historians of ancient times, is a small and insignificant stream. It rises in the Appenine mountains, and after a course of 160 miles, empties into the Tuscan sea, at Ostia. The water is yellow, muddy, and thick, and navigable only for small craft. The Appenines, which may be considered as a spur of the Alps, extend nearly the whole length of the peninsula.

ANCIENT ITALY. Ancient Italy is well known to have been, for a long period, the seat of learning, arts, and power; its capital was with propriety called the mistress of the world. Its rulers, under the various appellations of tribunes, consuls and emperors, exercised universal dominion. Nothing saved any country from their grasp, but its distance and insignificance. This extension of empire seems not to have proceeded, as in modern times, from a wish to make the conquered country a source of pecuniary profit to the parent state, but merely for the love of dominion. They were usually governed by a prefect, and many of the inhabitants admitted to the privileges of Roman citizens.

MODERN. Modern Italy has nothing in common with ancient, except its fine soil and climate; in every thing else it exhibits a contrast. The climate is warm without excessive heat, and salubrious, except in the neighborhood of the Pontine marshes. At Naples, in latitude 41°, fires are seldom used in their sitting rooms. Snow and ice are not often seen. The abundance and excellence of its productions correspond with the soil and climate. In many places there are two crops in a year. Corn, wine, silk, and the oil of the olive, are its principal productions. Commerce is chiefly carried on in foreign vessels.

CHARACTER. The national character of the Italians, naturally cheerful, but always marked by strong passions, has by continual oppression been rendered selfish, dissembling, and revengeful. The Italian possesses a certain acuteness, and versatility of character, as well as love of money, which stamp him for a merchant. A great portion of the land fit for cultivation, is in the hands of the clergy, the nobility, and large land holders, who do not reside on their estates, and have no other connection with their tillage, than that of exacting heavy rents. The peasantry, the actual occupants, are poor, indolent, and oppressed. Beggars and bandits are numerous in the kingdom of Naples and the states of the church. Between Terricina, on the frontiers of the Roman states, and Fondi, a miserable Neapolitan town, inhabited by mendicants, the banditti have their head quarters,

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and carry on the business of robbing systematically. They have a chief, to whose orders they yield implicit obedience. Scouts are placed on eminences which command an extensive view of the road, to give notice by signals of the approach of travellers; and though there are military posts at every mile on the road, designed for their protection, passengers may think themselves fortunate if they escape an attack. The signal being given, the banditti in a moment rush from the steepest heights, and seize the traveller, almost within view of the soldiers stationed to guard him. Resistance is dangerous. Not to carry objects which may excite their cupidity is not always a security. The passports and other papers of the traveller are examined, from which the banditti judge of the ability of the person to whom they belong, and if they think him able to pay any thing for his ransom, they carry him to their rendezvous, and hold him until the requisite sum is obtained; and if not procured within the time allowed him, he is usually put to death.

GIPSEYS. The south of Italy is the favorite country of the gipseys, distinguished for their poverty, the filthiness of their dress and appearance, and their talents at imposition. The men act the part of conjurers and mountebanks. The women wander about the country, and subsist by pilfering and fortune telling. Without fixed habitations, they live in tents, where men, women, and children, are crowded together in one common assemblage. They are said to be of Egyptian origin, and their name to be a corruption of that term; but persons of this character are the production of every country where the credulity of the people will support them.

Previous to the commencement of the French revolution, Italy was divided into a number of small states, independent of, and unconnected with each other; some of them of a republican, others of a monarchical cast, and all under the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the pope. The first French army entered Italy and planted what they called the tree of liberty, in Savoy, in 1792, watering it plentifully with the blood of the citizens. From that period until 1815, Italy was often the theatre of desolating wars, and subject to various revolutions, of which no less than fifteen are enumerated.

CONGRESS OF VIENNA. To understand the present political condition of Italy, it is necessary to advert to the proceedings of the memorable congress of sovereigns assembled at Vienna, in 1814 and '15. Previous to Bonaparte's disastrous campaign of 1812, in Russia, he had made himself master of the greater part of Europe, unsettled several states, abolishing some governments, and setting up others in their stead, all with a view of aggrandizing France. Italy was conquered, its ancient governments overthrown, and new ones set up, and its whole system subverted. In 1814, the combined powers of Great Britain,

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Austria, Russia, and Prussia, having conquered Bonaparte, and restored the Bourbon dynasty to the throne of France; and driven, as they supposed, the disturber of their peace into perpetual exile in the island of Elba, called a meeting of the sovereigns of Europe at Vienna, the object of which was to perpetuate their own power, by a restoration, as far as was practicable, of the ancient order of things. Liberal principles, which went to the denial of the divine right of kings and priests, and to the destruction of the system built upon that hypothesis, had been gradually making their way in Europe for the last thirty years, threatening the overthrow of hereditary monarchy, privileged orders, and state religion.

The Congress of Vienna, called to meet a crisis of this nature, was the most important ever assembled in Europe, whether considered in relation to the characters of which it was composed, the principles it sought to establish, or its results. It assembled on the first of November, 1814, and continued its deliberations until the 10th of June following. It was composed of the emperors of Austria and Russia; of the kings of Prussia, Denmark, Bavaria, and Wirtemburg, and many of the sovereign princes and dukes of Germany, who attended in person, assisted by their ministers; and delegations from all the other powers of Christian Europe, each seeking for itself an enlargement of its jurisdiction. From the principles and the proceedings of this congress, the doctrines of the sovereigns of Europe, in relation to their own powers, and the rights of the people, are to be learned.

ITS PRINCIPLES. Legitimacy, or the right to govern, derived from royal birth, and vested in every person who could trace his descent from a king, was unquestioned, provided he could get an empire, kingdom, or province, to govern, unoccupied by any claimant with a prior title. This right was incommunicable.

Any right in the people to choose for themselves, by whom they should be governed, to what kingdom they should belong, or with whom they should be associated, was disallowed.

Princes and kings, whom the revolutions had deprived of their kingdoms, were, as far as practicable, to be restored. Some new claimants appeared to be provided for. France was to be reduced to its ancient limits, and the great combined powers who had brought about the last revolution, were to have their territories enlarged.

Little difficulty occurred in settling these general principles, it being a matter on which they were all agreed, but much in adjusting the details, each endeavoring to obtain as much as possible for himself. So difficult were the various points to adjust, and so conflicting were the claims, that this great congress were on the point of breaking up, without coming to any result, satisfactory even to themselves, when they were astounded with

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the intelligence, that Bonaparte had left his empire of Elba, landed in France, marched in triumph to Paris, expelled the Bourbon occupant of the throne, and taken possession himself. An instrument which had been previously drawn up as a matter of compromise, which was then undergoing a discussion, and various alterations, was immediately signed, and the congress dissolved itself on the 10th of June, having previously declared Bonaparte an outlaw, and a disturber of the peace of Europe, and of the repose of the world, and formed a combination against him, by which the four great powers agreed to bring six hundred thousand men into the field. This instrument of compromise consisted of 121 articles, disposing of the various governments of Europe, and defining their territories. According to its provisions, Italy was divided into eleven principalities or governments.

NAPLES. The kingdom of Naples, or of the two Sicilies, comprehends the whole of continental Italy south of the states of the church, and the island of Sicily with its adjacent dependencies. It contains 42,000 square miles, and 7,000,000 of inhabitants. It has a formidable array of ecclesiastics, consisting of nearly 100,000 in the continental portion of the kingdom, possessing nearly one third of the landed property, and constituting about a fiftieth part of the population.

From 1807 to 1814, Naples, exclusive of Sicily, was governed successively by Joseph Bonaparte and Murat, the brother-in-law of Napoleon, both placed on the throne and supported by French armies. Ferdinand I., the reigning prince, was driven into the island, where he maintained a precarious authority, supported by British arms. The government under Napoleon's kings was conducted upon much more liberal principles than under the hereditary monarchs. By the arrangements of the congress of Vienna, Ferdinand was restored, and the kingdom of the two Sicilies united. His arbitrary measures contrasted with the liberal ones immediately preceding, and his rejection of a constitution formed by Lord Bentick, the British minister resident in Sicily, upon the principles of the English system, induced an uneasiness among his subjects, which ripened into a rebellion in 1820.

REVOLUTION OF 1820. This revolution was the work principally of a society called Carbonari or Colliers, which came into notice in Naples as a political instrument, opposed to the arbitrary rule of Ferdinand, in 1818. Clearing the wood of wolves, (opposition to tyranny,) was their motto. Their religious character may be learned from one of their statutes, ordaining "that every Carbonaro has the unalienable right of worshipping the Almighty according to his own opinions, and the dictates of his own conscience." In 1820, they numbered 640,000, embracing many of the clergy, the military, and principal men of the king-

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dom. July 2d, 1820, Morelli, a lieutenant of a squadron of horse, first raised the revolutionary standard, with the motto, "God, the king, and the constitution," demanding a cortes and a representative government. The military and the citizens of Naples joined him. The king and the crown prince, heir apparent, to whom the king resigned the government, promised to introduce and support the principles of the Spanish constitution of 1812, securing to the nation a cortes and a government of laws. A united parliament, consisting of deputies from Naples and Sicily, was opened on the 10th of October, 1820, by the king, and the revolution appeared to be consummated without the shedding of blood.

Proceedings of this character, and constitutions emanating from the people, and subversive of the divine right of kings to govern at pleasure, were not to be tolerated by the monarchs of Europe. This constitution lasted from July, 1820, to March, 1821, when an Austrian army entered Naples, dissolved the parliament, and invested the king with absolute power.

HOLY ALLIANCE. These events in Naples derive their historical importance principally from the fact, that they are the first practical development of the views and principles of the holy alliance, in regard to the suppression of liberal principles, and interference in the internal affairs of other nations. This combination of kings against the liberties of the people, was formed at Paris, in September, 1815, but no event had called its principles into action, until the Neapolitian revolution of 1820. The instrument called the holy alliance, bears date at Paris, September 26th, 1815, and is said to be the draft of Alexander, emperor of Russia. It is signed by him and by Francis, emperor of Austria, and Frederic William, king of Prussia, as their personal act, without the intervention of their ministers. They solemnly declare, that they have no other object in view, than to show in the face of the world, their unwavering determination to adopt, for the only rule of their conduct, both in the administration of their respective states, and in their political relations with every other government, the precepts of justice, of charity, and of peace. After this flourishing preamble they stipulate:

STIPULATIONS OF THE TREATY. 1st. "That in conformity with the words of the holy scripture, which command all men to regard one another as brethren, they will remain united by the bonds of a true and indissoluble fraternity; and considering each other as co-patriots, they will lend one another on every occasion, and in every place, assistance, aid, and support, and regarding their subjects and armies, as the fathers of their families, they will govern them with the spirit of fraternity with which they are animated, for the protection of religion, peace, and justice.

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2d. "The only governing principle between them and their subjects shall be that of rendering reciprocal services, of testifying by an unalterable beneficence, the natural affection by which they ought to be animated, of considering all as only the members of one Christian nation, the three allied princes looking upon themselves as delegated by Providence to govern three branches of the same family, to wit, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, confessing likewise, that Christian nations of which they and their people form a part, have really no other sovereign than Him to whom alone power belongs of right, because in him alone are found all the treasures of love, of science, and of wisdom, that is to say, God our divine Saviour, Jesus Christ, the Word of the most high, the word of life. Their majesties therefore recommend with the most tender solicitude, to their people, as the only means of enjoying that peace which springs from a good conscience, and which alone is durable, to fortify themselves every day more and more, in the principles and exercise of the duties which the divine Saviour has pointed out.

3d. "All other powers which wish solemnly to profess the sacred principles which have dictated this act, and who shall acknowledge how important it is to the happiness of nations, too long disturbed, that these truths should henceforth exercise upon human destinies all the influence which belongs to them, shall be received with as much readiness, as affection, into this holy alliance."

The king of France, at a subsequent period, joined this coalition. The British government, jealous of the increasing influence of Russia in the affairs in Europe, and not fully understanding the import and bearing of a treaty containing only general expressions of good will to the human family, and a mutual promise between the contracting parties, that each would govern his own subjects according to the principles of the gospel, declined to become a party. Some benevolent men, both in Europe and America, were imposed upon by the specious pretences held up in the treaty, but the more cautious thought that the views of these sovereigns in making this ostentatious and unusual display of their philanthropy, would only be learned by its results.

Alexander, Francis and Frederick, the personal parties to the holy alliance, were men in no wise distinguished for their talents, and were inferior to thousands of their subjects. By virtue of principles originating in times of ignorance, and having their foundations in the hereditary and divine right of kings, each of them possessed a personal income for his private emolument to a greater amount than the whole civil list of the United States. They enjoyed a complete exemption from all accountability to human tribunals. They possessed the power of making war and peace at pleasure, and of commanding the resources of one hundred millions of subjects for purposes of their own aggrandizement.

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The principles of civil liberty which tend to subvert this baseless fabric, had flourished in the United States for half a century, every year adding to their extent and permanency. They had sprang up in South America, and were beginning to appear in Greece. A fortuitous concurrence of circumstances had brought together the three principal despots of Europe at Paris, in September, 1815, and they were not disposed to separate without taking some measures to arrest the progress of public opinion, and to perpetuate their power. Had they done this without impiously calling to their aid the pure principles of the Christian religion, it might have been considered only as an ordinary effort to retain authority, common to all the occupants of ill gotten power. As it was, it added the guilt of sacrilege to its other enormities.

MEETING OF THE HOLY ALLIANCE AT TRAPPEAU. At the breaking out of the revolutionary spirit in the south of Europe, in 1820, the emperor of Russia, the head of the holy alliance, called a meeting of the members of that combination, to be held on the 26th of October, 1820, at Trappeau, a city of Austrian Silesia. The European powers who had not in form joined this league, were invited to attend. After a session of a few weeks this body published a manifesto, in which they say, "that the overthrow of the order of things in Spain, Portugal, and Naples, had necessarily incurred the cares and labors of the powers who had combatted the revolution, and convinced them of the necessity of putting a check to the new calamities with which Europe is threatened. Without doubt the powers have a right to take in common, general measures of protection against those states, where reforms engendered by rebellion are opposed to legitimate governments."

They profess to desire only to maintain tranquility, and to protect Europe from the scourge of new revolutions. They ground their right of interference upon the treaty of the holy alliance made between themselves, to which the nations whose interests were to be affected were not parties; a proposition which bears its own refutation upon its face. Having published these declarations, and sent a particular invitation to the king of Naples to attend their next meeting, the holy alliance adjourned to meet at Laybach, a city of Austria, forty miles westerly from Vienna, in the month of January following, for the purpose of obtaining a more full representation, and taking more effectual measures to suppress the rising spirit of reform in the south of Europe.

MEETING AT LAYBACH. At Laybach the emperors of Russia and Austria attended in person, assisted by some of the ablest counsellors. England, France, and the kingdom of the two Sicilies, sent three each; Prussia and Sardinia two; Tuscany, Modena, and the states of the church, one each. At this con-

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gress, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, the three original parties to the holy alliance, published an expose of the state of Europe, which may be considered as a practical comment upon their treaty. The principles advanced in this paper are sufficient to excite alarm among the advocates of liberty, and the rights of man throughout the world. They say,

1st. That an hereditary monarchy is the only legitimate government.

2d. That all reform, or amelioration of the condition of the subject, must proceed from the free grace of the sovereign.

3d. That any attempts not originating from this source, are to be considered as rebellion, and to be put down by the sword.

4th. That it is the right and duty of the legitimate sovereigns of Europe to unite in support of each other, and in suppressing the revolutionary spirit in every nation.

These principles thus avowed and carried into practice, show what the present political condition of the greater part of Europe is, and what the friends of liberty and reform must expect to encounter. Great Britain, though often solicited, stood aloof from this conspiracy. Her minister attended the congresses of Trappeau and Laybach, not for the purpose of uniting with, but for that of watching their proceedings, and remonstrating against them. She declared a strict neutrality in relation to the commotion in the south of Europe, and denied the right of interference by one nation, in the internal affairs of another.

PROCEEDINGS IN RELATION TO NAPLES. The then recent revolution in Naples, was the particular occasion of the meeting at Laybach. The king was induced to attend, but not until he had assured the parliament of the two Sicilies, then sitting in the capital, that nothing should be agreed to on his part, which should impair the principles of the constitution which he had sworn to support. At his request, four commissioners were appointed by the parliament, to accompany him as counsellors, charged with the duty of seeing that nothing was done to jeopardize their rights. On his arrival his counsellors were dismissed, and he compelled to disavow all the proceedings of the revolutionists.

In the mean time, an Austrian army of 60,000 men crossed the Po, on their advance to Naples, supported by a Russian reserve of 100,000. The king was compelled by the holy alliance to give orders to the duke of Calabria, and the parliament, to accede to the views of the allied monarchs, and to receive the Austrian troops as friends. These orders were indignantly rejected, and the king declared to be in a state of bondage. Vigorous measures of defence were adopted, and a large Neapolitan army raised and placed under the command of general Pape; but this force, without discipline or courage, and without efficient officers, disbanded, after several ineffectual skirmishes. The

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Austrians took possession of the capital with the loss of only sixty men, and put an end to this revolution. Austrian troops, at first amounting to 55,000 men, but afterwards gradually reduced, continued to hold possession of the strong holds of the kingdom until 1827, and were supported at the expense of the Neapolitans, for the purpose of holding them in subjection to an absolute despotism. The carbonari were denounced as guilty of high treason. Numerous arrests and convictions for political offences committed by the revolutionists kept the people in a constant state of alarm, and drove many of the best citizens into exile. Measures of this servere nature have subdued the spirit of the Italians, and reduced them to a state of quietude under a despotism.

CITY OF NAPLES. Naples, the capital of the kingdom of the two Sicilies, and the largest city in Italy, contains a population of 364,000, and is beautifully situated on the margin of a capacious bay, on the western border of the peninsula, in latitude 41° north. The city has ever been celebrated for beauty of situation, serenity of sky, and salubrity of climate, insomuch that its inhabitants say it is a piece of heaven fallen upon earth. The general character of the Neapolitans is lively, intelligent and cheerful. They are excessively fond of music, and of any entertainment of which that constitutes a considerable part.

The inhabitants of the capital as well as of the kingdom, and of Italy in general, are temperate. Though this is the native country of the vine, and wines and brandy are cheap, its inhabitants maintain their character for temperance. In the city, water sellers, keeping constantly on hand, in the summer season, water cooled by snow and ice from the Appenines, are to be found at every corner, dispensing through the heat of the day, a refreshing beverage, at the cheapest rate, to the citizens. Their stands are much more frequented than those of wine and brandy sellers.

A description of the public buildings, and of the splendid houses of the rich and noble, would be but a repetition of those of other cities, which are the residence of a monarchical court.

LAZARONI. The lazaroni, or extreme poor of Naples, form a distinct class, and are more numerous and less vicious than the same grade of inhabitants in other large cities. They number 40,000, or nearly one eighth of the population. They live without employment, without a home, or any regular means of support, the greatest part of them living day and night, through the year, in the streets and public places. The fruitfulness of the soil, which renders subsistence easy, the extraordinary temperance of the inhabitants, the warmth of the climate, and the indolence which it naturally produces, have greatly increased the

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number of lazaroni. Their temperance saves them from riot and crime, and in this respect distinguishes them from the poor of other cities.

The little which is absolutely necessary for their subsistence, they easily pick up in the capacity of waiters, messengers, and porters, without hard labor. Though naturally peaceable, they are fit instruments of rebellion, of which history records forty originating in Naples, though it is styled in relation to the government the most faithful city. Joseph Bonaparte, during his short reign in Naples, sought to improve the condition of this class, by finding employment for them at regular wages, and by creating in them a desire for property and the comforts of life. He succeeded to some extent; but on the return of the old dynasty, their condition was neglected, and they relapsed into their former state.

VESUVIUS. Mount Vesuvius is a mile and a quarter distant from Naples; it rises in the form of a pyramid, out of a plain, and was separated by wide vallies from the mountains of Somma and Otta Juro, until the eruption of 1794, when the summit of the mountain sunk, and the valleys were filled up. The height of the mountain is 3680 feet. Its summit forms a small plain, in the midst of which the crater is seen constantly smoking. Persons have ventured into it to the distance of ninety rods. The base of the mountain, and some spots on its sides, are inhabited, notwithstanding frequent eruptions of lava to the extent, at times, of a quarter of a mile in breadth, endanger the dwellings and labors of the inhabitants.

The earliest eruption of which history gives any authentic account, is that of A. D. 79, by which the cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum were buried. The eruption of 1794, destroyed the town of Torre del Greco. Since the commencement of the nineteenth century, scarcely a year has passed without some eruptions. The shower of ashes on the 24th of October, 1822, darkened the light of day at Naples, and spread as far as Cassano, a distance of one hundred miles. The lava, twelve feet in depth, poured down to the extent of a mile, from the base of the mountain, destroying every thing in its course.

RUINS OF POMPEII. So effectually were the cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum destroyed by the eruption of A. D. 79, that their sites were forgotten, and their existence known only from history. These have been discovered by accident in modern times, and have brought to light many interesting circumstances, showing the suddenness of the eruption, and the consternation of the inhabitants. In the cellar of a villa, twenty-seven female skeletons were found near a door, with ornaments for the neck and arms laying round them. Near the lower door of a large mansion, were found two skeletons, one holding a key in one hand and a bag of coin in the other. Ancient streets and

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buildings have been brought to view by recent excavations, exhibiting to some extent the domestic life of the ancients. Since the commencement of 1828, the government of Naples has caused further excavations to be made, by which one of the most splendid private dwellings has been discovered. It has a court in the centre, a suit of chambers, and separate apartments allotted to females, after the manner of a modern seraglio. It has a garden surrounded with arcades and columns, and a grand saloon which might have served as a place of meeting for the whole family.

Another house contained a large quantity of provisions and delicacies, none of which have been disturbed for eighteen centuries. The provisions found in the store room consisted of dates, almonds, chestnuts, figs, corn, oil, pies and hams. The internal arrangements of the house, the manner in which it was ornamented, and the quantity of provisions with which it was furnished, indicated great wealth in the proprietor. These discoveries in Pompeii and Herculaneum, have given rise to an

Restored View of Pompeii.

interesting question in natural philosophy: how they should have remained in such a state of preservation for so long a period? It is to be accounted for only by the consideration of the total exclusion of air and moisture.

CALABRIA. The refuse of the Italian population is to be found in Calabria, the southern portion of the kingdom. It is 160 miles in length, and from 20 to 60 broad, extending across the peninsula, and to its southern extremity. It contains little short of a million of inhabitants. They are characterized, probably with some exaggeration, and with many exceptions, as being cruel as the Moor, wild as the Tartar, and rude and ignorant as the negro of Senegal. The peasant labors little, and subsists almost entirely on the spontaneous productions of the

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earth. His habitation resembles rather a hovel than a dwelling for human beings; exhibiting in striking colors, what human nature is, when destitute of ambition, and not compelled to labor for subsistence. An individual never goes abroad without a dagger under his black mantle. The clergy are as ignorant as they are corrupt. Superstition pervades all classes. The robber carries relics in his bosom, which he supplicates to aid him in his depredations.

In February, 1783, Calabria was visited with an earthquake, which destroyed three hundred villages and thirty thousand inhabitants.

SICILY. Sicily, ancient Trinacria, the largest, most fertile, and populous island in the Mediterranean, is separated from the southern extremity of Italy by the straits of Messina, two miles wide at the narrowest point between the rocks of Scylla and Charybdis.

Geographers have amused themselves with conjectures, relating to its former junction with the continent, and its separation by an earthquake. But as no historical records or traditions of such an event are to be found, the question is yet unsettled, and is of no practical importance. Sicily forms an important part of the Neapolitan kingdom. Its population amounts to nearly 2,000,000; 300,000, or one seventh part of which, are ecclesiastics, or persons living on church funds. There are 1100 convents, containing 30,000 monks, and about the same number of nuns. The nobility consists of 2440 persons of various grades.

The climate is warm, but pleasant; the winters mild, and the heat of summer tempered with sea breezes. The soil is fertile, abounding in corn, wine, cotton, silk, olives, and various kinds of fruit. The fine climate of Sicily and the south of Italy receives a considerable drawback from the Sirocco, a south-east wind, which coming from the heated sands of the African desert, produces a painful sensation of heat and languor.

ETNA. Etna, the famous volcanic mountain, is situated on the eastern coast of Sicily. Its circumference at its base is 180 miles, and its height 10,000 feet above the level of the sea. On its sides and base are seventy-seven cities and villages, containing upwards of 100,000 inhabitants. From the city of Catania to the summit of the mountain, the distance is thirty miles, embracing three distinct climates or zones. The lowest, called the fertile zone, abounds with pastures, orchards and fruit; it extends from the base fifteen miles towards the summit. Then commences the woody or temperate region, extending upwards ten miles, and encircling the mountain. It presents a picture of bright green, forming a pleasant contrast with the desolate region above. The upper zone is marked by a circle of perpetual snow and ice. Nine eruptions are related in

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history before the Christian era, and fourteen considerable ones since. In later periods the eruptions have been less frequent, and less terrible in their extent and effects. The last was in 1819. They have ceased to be an object of terror to the surrounding inhabitants. Etna supplies Sicily and Italy with snow and ice in summer. The trade in these articles is monopolized by the bishop of Catania, who draws from it a revenue of $4,000 a year.

CITIES OF SICILY. Palermo is the principal city of the island and contains a population of 175,000. Syracuse was anciently the chief city, and contained a population of 300,000. It is now reduced to 13,000. It has an excellent harbor, and is used as a place of rendezvous for the United States ships of war in the Mediterranean. Messina is a considerable city, lying at the strait which separates the island from the continent, in latitude 38°. It has a population of 50,000.

In 1831, a volcanic island, about one mile in circumference, rose from the sea on the southern coast of Sicily, to the height of 150 feet. After a few months it disappeared, but rose again in the spring of 1832.

STATES OF THE CHURCH. The temporal dominions of the pope, or the States of the church, as they are called, are situated in the centre of Italy, and extend across the peninsula; bounded on the south by Naples, on the east by the gulf of Venice, on the north by the Austrian dominions in Italy, and on the west and south-west by the Tuscan sea, Modena, and Tuscany. They contain an extent of 17,185 square miles, and 2,500,000 inhabitants. The government of these states is unique in its character, consisting of a singular compound of ecclesiastical and civil jurisdiction in the same person. Under the pope, the government is conducted by a number of cardinals, who with some laymen occasionally admitted to places in the magistracy and army, fill all the important offices. The cardinals are appointed by the pope. One performs the duty of minister of finance, who presides in the apostolic chamber, a council to whom the revenues of the state are entrusted. Another has the office of secretary of state, who corresponds with the nuncios and legates to foreign powers. The detanio is entrusted to another, who has the nomination to vacant benefices, and the granting of dispensations, or exemption from certain duties. A vicar, besides his episcopal duties, has the office of minister of police.

Different assemblages of cardinals are called consistories or congregations, and deliberate concerning the nomination of bishops, nuncios and legates. They pass sentence on murderers who claim the right of asylum or impunity, by taking refuge in a church, and examine the complaints of the people

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against those who immediately govern them. An assemblage of cardinals, called the congregation of rites, regulates the ceremonials of the church, and confers the honors of canonization, that is, of declaring a person after his death to be a saint, to whom prayers may be addressed by the living. The chief of these congregations of cardinals exercises the holy office of the inquisition, assisted by a body called the index or council of censors, whose business it is to point out the persons subject to its cognizance. A certain number of cardinals over whom the pope presides in person, constitute a supreme court of appeals, both in civil and ecclesiastical cases, and determine when it is proper to extend pardon to convicts. The rota is a tribunal which takes cognizance of civil causes in the first instance, and is composed of laymen. The accustomed divisions into provinces, counties, and duchies, common in other countries, are abolished in the States of the church, and they are divided into seventeen legations, over each of which a cardinal presides, subject to the orders of the government of Rome. Laymen assist in the administration of justice, their decisions being subject to a revision by the cardinals. One part of the official duty of the cardinals, is to act as the pope's ambassadors to such foreign powers as acknowledge his jurisdiction, and are there always to be addressed under the title of the king's cousin. Another of their most important official duties is to elect a pope.

THEIR POLITICAL CONDITION. The papal government in these states, in the creation of which the people have no agency, and over whose conduct they have no control, exercises an absolute despotism over the persons and property of its subjects. They are not allowed to read the Bible, but must receive their religious tenets implicitly from the priests, being taught that the traditions of the church, and the bulls or edicts of the pope, are of equal authority with the scriptures; and that the pope and his clergy are the only legitimate interpreters of them. Where a main principle of the government is to keep the people in ignorance, schools for the common people, newspapers, or any means of diffusing knowledge among them, are not to be expected. The inhabitants of the states of the church are deplorably ignorant.

ROME. Rome, the residence of the pope, and the capital of his dominions, once the largest city in the world, and the seat of universal empire, is still a considerable city, though only a shadow of its former greatness. It is situated on both sides of the river Tiber, twelve miles from its entrance into the sea, in latitude 42° north; and is thirteen miles in circumference. In its most flourishing period, ancient Rome numbered 3,000,000 of inhabitants. Modern Rome contains 144,552, 6,000 of whom are ecclesiastics.

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The Jews are tolerated, and allowed to live by themselves in a particular quarter, on the left bank of the Tiber, to the number of ten thousand. They are despised and mal-treated, but care little for it, as long as they are allowed to possess most of the wealth and profitable business of the city, in the capacity of merchants and brokers.

Rome still contains much to attract the attention of the learned. Many of the remains of ancient buildings are still to be seen. Of its modern ones, the church of St. Peter's is said to be the most magnificent in the world. It was upwards of a century in building, having been commenced in 1506, and finished in 1614, at an expense of 45,000,000 Roman crowns, equal in value considering the difference in prices, to $100,000,000 at the present time. The cross upon the dome is 450 feet above the pavement. Contiguous to the church is the Vatican, the winter residence of the Pope. Its interior is divided into twenty courts and as many porticos. It has 1200 apartments. The library contains 70,000 volumes, and 40,000 manuscripts. The Pope's summer residence, is a palace built on the Quirinal, one of the seven hills on which Rome was originally founded. This building, though much less than the Vatican, is a magnificent palace, with extensive gardens. During the ages of superstition and ignorance, the popes levied a tax upon their subjects throughout Christendom, under the denomination of *Peter pence*, under the pretence of honoring St. Peter, for the purpose of erecting these buildings, and supporting the dignity of the successors of that apostle.

CARNIVAL AND LENT. The carnival at Rome immediately precedes the forty days fasting of Lent, and usually lasts eight days, commencing about the 25th of January, forty-eight days before the Sunday following the 14th of March. It is a time of universal festivity, as a preparation for the succeeding fast. The name carnival, derived from the Latin words, [carni vale] taking leave of flesh, denotes the object. The last three days are the most licentious. Persons of all descriptions lay aside restraint. Priests and prelates, under the scruples of conscience the rest of the year, now give indulgence to their passions, and go about the city in quest of pleasure forbidden them at other times, and find abundant means of enjoyment. The more modest wear masks; others take no pains to conceal their excesses.

The carnival corresponds in its principal features with the Saturnalia of pagan Rome. The Italians being free from the vice of intemperate drinking, the parent of most other vices, their revellings are consequently not attended with that tumult common to such occasions. At twelve o'clock at night, on the commencement of Lent, all merriment ceases, and for the forty succeeding days, the appearance of the city is as silent and

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sombre as it was before joyous. The eating of any kind of flesh is strictly forbidden. The churches are crowded: the people are occupied in fasting, doing penance in various forms, making confessions, and obtaining absolution.

Leaning towers of Bologna.

At the close of Lent commences the festival of Easter, in commemoration of the resurrection of Christ. The transition is as sudden and as great as that from the carnival to Lent. The religious ceremonies and parade of Rome, are equally disgusting to strangers, whether infidels, or protestant christians; the one considers them all a farce, the other a corruption of the pure principles of Christianity.

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Rome is a great resort for strangers; the curious antiquarian and the lover of the fine arts, find much to engage their attention. Few however, make it a permanent residence.

Bologna, the second city in the ecclesiastical state, is situated in a rich and fertile valley, at the foot of the Appenines, 180 miles northwest of Rome, and distinguished for a celebrated university, and for its leaning towers.

OSTIA. Ostia, at the mouth of the Tiber, was formerly a considerable port, but in later periods its harbor has been choaked up by deposits from the river, and on account of its unhealthiness, the place has been deserted. Its insalubrity is ascribed to the neighborhood of the Pontine marshes, which lie to the south of Rome, and extend forty-five miles in length, and from four to twelve in breadth. They contain a great portion of stagnant water, and emit a noxious effluvia, rendering the surrounding country unhealthy. Their effects are felt in some degree at Rome. Various attempts have been made, both in ancient and modern times, to drain them, but without success. The other sections of the States of the church are salubrious and productive; but the population is ignorant, idle, and debased, as might be expected, from the combined influence of a civil and ecclesiastical despotism.

AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS IN ITALY. Next north of the dominions of the pope, are those assigned to Austria by the congress of Vienna, and constitute what is called the Lombardo Venitian kingdom. They are bounded by Switzerland and Germany on the north, by the Adriatic on the east, by the States of the church on the south, and Modena, Parma, and Sardinia on the west, containing 17,000 square miles, and 4,000,000 of inhabitants. In April, 1815, soon after this acquisition, the emperor of Austria granted to his Italian States what he called a constitution, noticeable only as an instance of the reluctance with which the occupants of power part with any portion of its exercise. It provides for two central congregations, one to be held at Venice, and the other at Milan; and for provincial congregations in the several departments.

In the Lombardy section of the kingdom, the members of the congregations are appointed by the emperor. In the Venitian part, the members of the provincial part of the congregations are appointed by the central, in conjunction with the emperor's officers. They are selected from the nobles, and landed proprietors, and from the royal cities, under the direction of the imperial governors. Their appropriate duties consist almost entirely in granting the royal postulates, as they are called, or imperial demands for money, and regulating the manner of collection. Some of them are allowed the privilege of advising the government, and of petitioning for the redress of grievances.

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VENICE. Venice, the capital of the eastern section of this kingdom, is built on seventy-two islands, near the head of the Adriatic, in latitude 45° north, and separated from the continent by the Lagoons, a wide and shallow arm of the sea. The islands are connected with each other and with the main land, by 450 bridges, one of the most singular of which is called the bridge of sighs, connecting the state prison with the ducal palace. It is a covered bridge, or gallery considerably elevated above the water, affording an avenue by which state prisoners are conducted to solitary cells, in a dungeon sunk below the level of the canals, from which delivery or escape is hopeless. The moans which the unhappy victims are heard to utter in this passage, has given it an appropriate name.

Bridge of Sighs.

Venice has canals instead of streets, boats instead of drays, and gondolas, instead of coaches, presenting altogether an unique appearance. Its tutelar saint is the evangelist Mark, to whom the inhabitants have dedicated a magnificent church, and on whose intercession they depend on all trying occasions. In

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this respect, Venice is like most other Roman Catholic cities, which have their favorite, or tutelar saints, who, in the opinion of the inhabitants, preside over their destinies and take a peculiar interest in their affairs. The Venitians approach their tutelar saint with familiarity, and with great confidence ask his intercession with the *Father*, to save them from calamities, and to confer on them peculiar favors.

Venice was formerly an independent aristocracy, governed by an assembly of nobles, and one of the richest cities in Europe, being the great mart for the commodities of the east, brought by the way of the Red sea to Alexandria; thence to this city, from whence they were distributed, at an immense profit over the continent. On the discovery of the route to the East Indies by the cape of Good Hope, Venice lost this source of wealth; it is now, however, the principal entrepot of commerce for Austria, and the north of Italy. It contains a population of 114,000.

Milan Cathedra

MILAN. Milan is the capital of the western division of the Austrian kingdom of Italy. It is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain, on the left bank of a small river, in the same latitude with Venice, and has a population of 150,000. The city and duchy of Milan suffered much by the wars of the French revolution, in which their inhabitants had no concern, being alternately occupied by French and Austrian troops. It was finally conquered by Bonaparte, and made a portion of his kingdom of

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Italy. The most celebrated public building in Milan is the cathedral, said to be second only to St. Peter's at Rome.

Mantua is another considerable city of Austrian Italy, seventy miles south of Venice, containing a population of 25,000, and is famous for being the birth place and favorite residence of Virgil.

SARDINIA. The kingdom of Sardinia is the next considerable portion of the north of Italy, the extent and condition of which was regulated by the congress of Vienna. It consists of the island of Sardinia, and several continental provinces, containing on the whole, an extent of 30,000 square miles, and 4,500,000 inhabitants.

The principal continental provinces are Savoy and Piedmont. The former lies at the foot of the Alps, bordering on France and Switzerland, and contains a population of half a million. It was formerly an independent nation, governed by its own dukes. At an early period of the French revolution, it was conquered by the arms of France, and incorporated with that republic, and made a department called Mont Blanc. It being one object of the congress of Vienna to reduce France to its ancient limits, Savoy was separated from that nation, and made a part of the Sardinian monarchy.

The revenue of the whole kingdom amounts to $900,000, and its expenditures to $1,000,000; its public debt to $2,500,000, and its army to 28,000 men. The clergy of the kingdom consists of forty bishops and archbishops, and 4000 parish priests. It has upwards of 400 convents. The power of the crown is unlimited, and hereditary in the male line. The administration is principally conducted by three secretaries of state.

REVOLUTION OF 1821. On the restoration of the Sardinian monarch, Victor Emanuel, in 1814, his conduct was so much more odious and oppressive than any thing his subjects had experienced under the French government, that discontents soon began to appear to an alarming extent, and ripened into a revolution in 1821. The people demanded a constitution and a limited monarchy, on the basis of the Spanish constitution of 1812. The king reluctantly yielded to these demands, and a form of government was prepared, which the king took an oath to support, on the 14th of March, 1821, and a junta was called to carry it into effect. This revolution, settling the kingdom of Sardinia upon the basis of a limited constitutional monarchy, was accomplished without bloodshed, and with little tumult.

SUBDUED BY AUSTRIA. Meanwhile the emperor of Austria, under the direction of the assembly of the holy alliance at Laybach, ordered an army to advance upon the frontiers of Piedmont, and Alexander caused an army of 90,000 Russians to

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advance towards Italy as a reserve. A battle was fought between the Sardinians and Austrians on the 8th of April, in which the latter were successful; on the 9th, the junta dissolved, and on the 10th, the Austrian army entered Turin, and terminated the revolution. For the purpose of effectually extirpating revolutionary principles, Sardinia was garrisoned by Austrian troops for the two succeeding years, at the expense of the subjugated kingdom, to the amount of $1,250,000, paid to Austria for the services of its army, and an equal sum for provisioning them.

The three unsuccessful attempts of the people of Spain, Naples, and Sardinia, to obtain a limited constitutional monarchy, having been put down by the holy alliance, with an overwhelming force, the ardor of the citizens of the south of Europe has been damped, and all rational hope of bettering their political condition, under present circumstances, extinguished.

ISLAND OF SARDINIA. The island of Sardinia, which forms a considerable port, and gives name to the whole kingdom, is situated in the Mediterranean, to the south of Corsica, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. It contains an area of 9,000 square miles, and 500,000 inhabitants. Sardinia is a pleasant and fertile island, with a salubrious climate, but its political condition is unfavorable to population or wealth. It is governed by the viceroy of an absolute monarch. Provinces thus governed are generally in a worse condition than the principal state. Viceroys are often guilty of oppression in the name of their sovereign, which he would not himself practice. Much of the landed property is in large portions, and in the hands of non-residents, whose only object is to obtain as much rent as possible. There are 400 large fiefs, one half of which belong to Spanish grandees.

The interior exhibits a degree of barbarism rarely known in other European countries. The peasants, many of them clothed in undressed skins, exhibit an uncouth appearance. The mountainous parts are infested with banditti. Justice is badly administered. Personal security, and the enjoyment of private property, of course, is not afforded to the people. Private revenge is allowed. A thousand murders have taken place in a month, few of them are judicially inquired after or punished. Cagliari is the capital of the island, the residence of the viceroy, and the emporium of the Sardinian trade. It has a capacious and strongly fortified harbor, and a population of 28,000.

TURIN. Turin is the capital of the continental dominions of the Sardinian monarch; it is pleasantly situated in a plain on the west bank of the Po, in latitude 45° north, 75 miles southwest of Milan. A beautiful range of hills rise on the south of the river, and on the other is a plain adorned with villas and gardens, extending to the foot of the Alps. The town is of an

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oblong form, and including the ramparts, is four miles in circumference, and contains 122,000 inhabitants.

TUSCANY. The grand duchy of Tuscany is another portion of Italy which fell under the supevision of the congress of Vienna; bounded north and east by Modena and the States of the church, and on the south and west by the Mediterranean, here called the Tuscan sea. Its superficies is estimated at 8,400 square miles, and its population at 1,300,000. The Appenine mountains enter Tuscany on the north, and traverse the country in a south-east direction. During Napoleon's reign, Tuscany, with some adjacent provinces, and the neighboring island of Elba, formed his kingdom of Etruria. On his first expulsion, he was allowed to retain this island, the only part of his vast dominions, in full sovereignty. Elba, noticeable only on this account, lies a short distance from the coast of Tuscany, in latitude 43° north, eight miles in length, and two in breadth. It contains a population of 14,000, whose principal employment is mining and making salt.

The congress of Vienna restored Tuscany to its former sovereign, Ferdinand III., who under the title of grand duke, governed it as an absolute monarch. Ferdinand died in 1824 and was succeeded by his only son Leopold II. It has three universities, containing an average of 300 students each; but the education of the common people is wholly neglected; three quarters of the inhabitants can neither read nor write.

FLORENCE AND LEGHORN. Florence, the capital, is situated in a beautiful and fertile vale of the river Arno, and has a population of 70,000. It is celebrated for its galleries of fine arts, and splendid public buildings. Leghorn is the principal port of Tuscany, and one of the most commercial cities of Italy; 4000 ships enter its harbor annually. Its commerce is principally carried on by foreigners, chiefly English and American. Armenians and Jews are the general brokers for all nations; 20,000 of them reside in the city, and engross a large portion of its wealth. The whole population is 65,000.

MODENA. Modena is another sovereign duchy modelled anew by the congress of Vienna, and to which they added some adjacent territory to make it sufficiently large for one of the branches of the Austrian royal family. The duchy, with this addition, contains 2000 square miles, 375,000 inhabitants, and an army of 2000 men. This population the duke governs as an absolute monarch, and receives $750,000 annually for his services.

PARMA AND PLACENTIA. On Napoleon's expulsion to the island of Elba, in April, 1814, it was decided that his wife and son should not accompany him, but return to her father, the emperor of Austria. Louisa was the oldest daughter of Francis I. by Maria Theresa, daughter of Ferdinand. She was born in

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1791, and married to Napeleon, April 1st, 1810. Her son, first called Napoleon the second, afterwards the duke of Reichstadt, was born March 20th 1811, and crowned king of Rome in 1812. This lady, of such high royal blood, and having been once regent of the French empire, it was found necessary to provide for in the general distribution of governments by the congress of Vienna. They selected for her the duchies of Parma and Placentia, and putting them together with the addition of another small duchy, made a government of 2000 square miles in extent, containing 400,000 inhabitants. She was constituted absolute sovereign of this territory, without regard to the wishes of its inhabitants, or the claims of its former proprietors. Spain, however, remonstrating against this arrangement, and putting in a claim in favor of one of her royal blood, the widow of a former proprietor, the interest of the ex-empress of France was changed from an inheritable to a life estate.

There are two or three other governments in the north of Italy, noticeable only because their smallness and unimportance has exempted them from the grasp of sovereigns who had undertaken to settle the affairs of Europe.

MONACO. Monaco has a population of 7000 inhabitants, and a superficial area of 535 square miles. The congress of Vienna placed it under the superintendence of the king of Sardinia, whose territory nearly surround it; but its unimportance has prevented him from interfering to any extent in its affairs.

SAN MORINO. The republic of San Morino enjoys an absolute independence, and is the smallest civilized state of which history gives any account. In the fifth century, a stone cutter named Morino, established himself in a hermitage on the hill now occupied as the town. His followers became so numerous as to form themselves into a community, taking the name of the hermit. Besides the mountain on which the town stands, the republic possesses two adjoining hills with a territory comprising the capital, and four small villages, of thirty square miles and 7000 inhabitants. The capital is situated on the summit of a mountain accessible only by one narrow road, and is surrounded by walls; its main defence, however, consists in its unimportance to any other power. The affairs of this republic are managed by 300 senators and an executive council of twenty patricians, twenty burghers, and twenty peasants.

The inhabitants of the north of Italy, embracing the territory north of the States of the church, possess more wealth, commerce and intelligence, than the south. The different powers of Italy have no political connexion with each other, few contentions among themselves, and no wars, except what have been forced upon them by the events of the French revolution. An Austrian army has always been at hand to put down any risings of the people against domestic despotism.

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CHAPTER V.

Switzerland. Situation, extent, population and force. Government. General Diet. Its constitution and powers. Cantons, their government. Mountains; their height and extent. Mont Blanc. St. Bernard. Monks; their hospitium; their charities. Glaciers. Avalanches. Napoleon's expedition over the Alps. Roads. Character of the inhabitants. Geneva. Germany. Boundary, extent, population and force. Government. Election of an emperor. Imperial diet. Condition of Germany under Napoleon; and as regarded by the Congress of Vienna. Germanic confederacy. Diet of the confederation. How composed. Its objects. Austria. Its constituent parts, extent, population and force. Government. Its principles. Influence in the affairs of Europe. Prince Metternich. Vienna. Its population. The Danube. Its navigation. Trieste. Bavaria. Extent, population, force, and government. Munich. Count Rumford. His nativity, education and advancement. His improvement in the police of Munich. In the sciences. Saxony. Its extent, population, and government. Dresden. Leipsic. Battles of October, 1813. Literature. Book fairs. Universities. Reigning prince. Hanover. Its component parts, population and government. Connection with Great Britain. Its constitution. Literature. Free cities of Germany. Their origin. Hamburgh. Elbe. Frankfort. Rothchilds, father and sons. Their origin. Magnitude of their operations. Their principles of finance. Bremen and Lubec. Hanseatic league. Government of the free cities. Holland and Belgium. Their condition under France. Their union by the congress of Vienna. Constitution of the Netherlands. States general. William I. Character. Revolution of 1830. Separation of Belgium. Leopold. His character. Luxemburg. Holland. Face of the country. Mode of travelling. Canals. River Scheldt.

SWITZERLAND. Switzerland is bounded on the west by France, on the north by Germany, on the east by the Austrian province of Tyrol, and on the south by the Sardinian and Lombardo Venitian kingdoms of Italy. Its extent from east to west is 200 miles, and from north to south 150, containing a superficies of 18,000 square miles. Its population amounts to 2,250,000, the greatest proportion of whom are protestants. The revenue of the confederacy, arising from the fixed contributions of each canton, is $2,000,000. The federal army consists of 67,000 men, one half of which only is in actual service, the other being a reserve. In addition, they have a militia something

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after the manner of the United States. Each artizan at the age of twenty is obliged to enrol, arm, and equip himself in the uniform of his canton, forming in the whole a corps of 250,000 men. The Swiss soldiers are allowed to engage in foreign service. In France, for a considerable period before the fall of the Bourbons, they formed the body guard of the king; and a fine corps of them was massacred by the troops of the convention, at an early period of the revolution.

GOVERNMENT. The Swiss confederacy for a long time consisted only of thirteen cantons. It underwent various mutations during the French revolution; having been conquered by that government, it was formed at one time into what was called the Helvetic Republic, in French phrase, one and indivisible, having a directory of five persons after the manner of France, and subject to her control.

The affairs of Switzerland were finally regulated by the congress of Vienna. None of the royal blood connected with that assembly wishing to undertake its government, it was allowed to remain a confederated republic, consisting, with the additions then assigned to it, of twenty-two cantons, with the powers of self-government, on its ancient basis. Switzerland is, in many respects an interesting country to the United States. Its government bears a greater resemblance to that of the United States, than any other European nation. It consists of twenty-two independent states, each managing its internal concerns at pleasure, and all connected by a federal union, which resembles that of the United States under the confederacy, more than that under the existing constitution.

DIET. A Congress, under the name of a diet, consisting of delegates from all the cantons, convenes once in two years to regulate the affairs of the confederacy. After the manner of the old American congress, they vote by cantons, each having one vote in the diet, whatever may be the number of delegates, or the magnitude of the canton. The powers of the diet extend principally to foreign relations, making war and peace, raising and supporting armies, making treaties, contracting alliances, and regulating commerce. The diet convenes successively at Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, which are called directing cantons. The governor of the directing canton in which the diet is held, is Landaman, or chief executive officer of the confederacy for the time being. When the decrees of the diet are not acceptable to a particular canton, they are not complied with, and there are no other means of compulsion than that of arming the whole confederacy against the refractory member; a source of frequent difficulty, and sometimes of civil war.

The three directing cantons contain a population of 686,400, being something more than one third of the whole, and have a controlling influence in the affairs of the diet. Berne contains

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357,000 inhabitants, and is larger than any two others. Uri has a population of 14,000 only, and is the smallest. Neufchatel, containing a population of 57,000, has a monarchical government, modified by constitutional restrictions. Seven cantons have aristocratic governments, certain privileged orders holding all civil power. Seven are representative republics, the people choosing the members of their legislative bodies. The governments of the others are democratical, according to the original and strict sense of the word. The people at large convene in general assembly to choose their magistrates, and deliberate on the affairs of the republic after the manner of ancient Greece and Rome.

CHARACTER. The Swiss are characterized for their honesty, simplicity and purity. Bravery, love of labor, attachment to their country, and respect for ancient customs, form the principal features of their national character. Their clergy are laborious instructors of the people, in morals and religion. They have thirty newspaper establishments, diffusing useful information among the people, and free from the restraints of a censorship.

DESCRIPTION OF ITS TERRITORY. Physical geography, or a description of the natural face of the country, is not strictly within our province; but Switzerland presents many peculiarities of this nature connected with its moral and political condition, which ought to be noticed. It is literally a land of mountains and valleys. Two distinct ranges of mountains under the general name of Alps, traverse the country in a parallel direction from southwest to northeast; the Jura chain in the southerly quarter extends in length about two hundred and forty miles, and in breadth about thirty-five. It is precipitous and abrupt on its northerly side, and becomes gradually lower on the side of France.

The Alps proper are more extensive and lofty. Numerous and large branches extend in every direction. The valleys at the foot of the Alps are fertile in corn, meadows, and the productions of the vine. Next on the mountain side extending to the height of 5000 feet above the level of the sea, is a region of timber, commencing with the oak and terminating with the fir. Next is a region of fruitful pasture, extending to a further height of 2000 feet; to which cattle are driven from the valleys in summer. To this succeeds a region of perpetual snow and ice, generally commencing at the height of about 8000 feet from the level of the sea.

The inhabitants are settled along the valleys on the sides of the mountains, and on the table lands at the tops of the lower spurs, in small hamlets. There are few places in Switzerland which in other countries would be called considerable towns; Geneva, Berne, and Zurich are the largest, the three containing an aggregate population of less than 60,000.

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GLACIERS. The sun melts the masses of snow in summer, which cover the highest regions. The snow thus melted in descending is converted into ice, forming glaciers, or large fields, of which there are upwards of 400. These are more or less inclined, and always divided by large fissures. At the approach of spring, they descend a short distance, according to their greater or less inclination; the fissures are made in the descent with tremendous noises, which echo from mountain to mountain. The falling snows slightly cover them; this renders the ascent over the glaciers extremely hazardous.

AVALANCHES. The avalanches to which these mountain regions are subject, are large masses of snow and ice precipitated from the summits into the valleys, often occasioning great devastation. They are of three kinds. First, the wind or dust avalanches, or snow drifts, so called because they are occasioned by the wind, which carries along the fresh fallen snow in great quantities like clouds of dust, from the summits into the valleys and fissures. They frequently bury the traveller beneath them, and would always prove fatal were it not that extreme lightness enables him to surmount them. Instances have occurred of persons remaining twenty-four hours under these drifts, and finally extricating themselves.

The second kind to which the term avalanche is more appropriate, consists of great masses of snow and ice which fall by their own weight, bringing down with them the ground on which they stood, with the rocks and trees thereon. Their fall makes the mountain and valley tremble, and is accompanied with noise like thunder.

The third kind is called earth avalanches, or land-slips. They occur, when the soil, to a great extent, being weakened by long continued rains, slides down from the sides of the mountains, with all the houses, trees, forests, and every thing thereon, overwhelming all in its way. The largest and most destructive of these land slips was that of Rosseburg Summit, in 1806. This mountain top was 3000 feet above the level of the lake Zeeg at its base, and two miles in length, and a quarter of a mile in breadth. Giving the inhabitants on the mountain side but a few hours warning from its crackings, the whole body, to an average depth of fifty feet, instantly slid into the lake and valley below, destroying in its course several villages, and 457 inhabitants. The pecuniary loss was estimated at half a million of dollars.

MONT BLANC. The highest of the Alps, and the highest mountain in Europe, is Mont Blanc, which rises from the valley of Chamouni, on the borders of Savoy, 15,662 feet above the level of the sea. Its summit has of late years been several times ascended by travellers, but with much difficulty and haz-

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ard. Eighteen frightful glaciers with their deep fissures, lie around its sides, whose fantastic forms heighten the scene, and increase the danger. The line of perpetual congelation is at the height of 800 feet. The highest point is a small ridge about six feet wide, where the adventurer, who has gained the summit, may extend his view 150 miles without obstruction, in any direction.

ST. BERNARD. The great St. Bernard, ascending 11,000 feet, divides Switzerland from Piedmont. The road leading from the lake of Geneva, passes over this mountain, and is the direct route from France to Italy. At the height of 7688 feet, is the hospitium of the monks of St. Bernard, of the order of St. Augustine. It is the highest inhabited spot in Europe, and a region of perpetual winter. Assisted by the servants of the convent, these pious ecclesiastics, to the number of about a dozen, devote themselves to the guidance and refreshment of travellers who pass this way, either to ascend the top of the mountain, or to go into Italy. Upwards of 9000 persons are annually refreshed at this hospitium. In the midst of tempests and snow storms, the monks, accompanied by dogs trained for the purpose, set out to seek the wandering traveller who may have lost his way. With wonderful sagacity the dogs pursue the track until they find the wanderer, when they give notice to their masters, who bring refreshments of bread and wine, and conduct him to the hospitium. Sometimes they find the body of a traveller who has perished in the tempest, and convey it to the vault of the dead in their convent, where it is wrapt in linen, and laid on a table to remain until another supplies its place. It is then set against the wall among other dead bodies, which on account of the extreme cold, do not putrify, and are often recognized by their friends after a lapse of years. Adjoining this vault, they have a place answering the purpose of a burying ground, where the bones are deposited when they have accumulated too much in the vault. They cannot be covered with earth in the usual manner, there being nothing around the monastery but ice, snow, and naked rocks.

NAPOLEON'S EXPEDITION. Napoleon marched his army over the great St. Bernard into Italy, and passed this hospitium, May 15, 1800. In the church, is the monument of general Desaix, who fell at the battle of St. Marengo. Napoleon ordered his body to be embalmed, and assigned it a resting place in this hospitium. A contribution has lately been raised in Europe to a considerable amount to render the habitation of these ecclesiastics more comfortable, and to increase their means of charity. Whatever protestant Europe may think of the peculiar tenets of the order of St. Augustine, such an exhibition of exalted benevolence must ever be admired.

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ROADS OVER THE ALPS. No land communication exists between the western section of Europe and the Italian peninsula, but across the Alps. One of the most lasting monuments of the power and policy of Napoleon, is the artificial mountain roads, constructed for the purpose of connecting his Italian kingdoms with France. The first leads over mount Cenis, 6000 feet high from Savoy to Piedmont. Formerly travellers were obliged to pass over the steepest height on mules. In 1805, Napoleon caused a winding road for carriages to be made, thirty miles in length, and 18 feet wide, which is passable at all seasons. In 1815 it was travelled by 16,000 carriages, and 34,000 mules.

The second crosses the Simplon, a mountain 10,327 feet in height. The road leads from the canton of Valais to Piedmont, is thirty-six miles long, and 25 feet wide, and was constructed between 1801 and 1806. It is the only road from Switzerland to Italy over the Alps, passable for carriages. It is no where too steep to be passed by heavy wagons. It is carried over high precipices, and through six galleries or tunnels, some of them several hundred paces in length, lighted by openings, from whence may be seen on one side glaciers, and peaks covered with perpetual snow, and on the other, verdant valleys, studded with cottages. The grand tunnel is 683 feet long, entirely excavated through a granite rock. At the gallery of the glaciers, the road is 6000 feet above the level of the sea, and the growth of trees cease. At the top is a hospitium for travellers. Four miles further on, is the village of Simplon, 4548 feet above the level of the sea, and one of the highest mountain villages in Europe.

Besides these works of Napoleon, the Alps are traversed by a road leading over mount Genevie, 6000 feet high, on the frontiers of France and Piedmont. Another road leads over mount St. Gothard, which existed as early as the 14th century, and is generally not more than 10 or 12 feet wide. Bridges of surprising boldness are constructed over its precipices and ravines. A gallery or tunnel has been cut through a rock 200 feet in length, and 13 feet high. In winter the snow is at times twenty feet deep in the road; but the inhabitants of the neighboring villages are required to keep a passage open, for which they are allowed to collect a toll from travellers. From 15,000 to 20,000 traders pass this road annually, and a considerable portion of the inhabitants of the Levantine valley subsist by the transportation of merchandize and travellers over this mountain. On the summit, 6000 feet above tide water, is an inn, a hospital, and a room for the storage of merchandize. The main road from Austrian Tyrol to Italy, is over the Brenner mountain, 6000 feet high, and is connected with a new road built by Austria over the Broglia, and the yoke of the Stilfs, 8000 feet high; being the highest road in Europe. Sixty different peaks of the

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Alps have been measured, the highest exceeding 15,000 feet, and the lowest 3000 above the level of the sea. It is estimated that the whole population interspersed among these mountains, Swiss, French and Austrians, exceeds 7,000,000; they are principally of German origin, but many Italians and Sclavonians. The principal business of the mountaineers, is raising cattle. More than 2,000,000 of them are herdsmen.

GENEVA. Geneva is one of the pleasantest and most commercial towns of Switzerland. It stands on the margin of a lake of the same name, forty miles long, and eight broad, 1250 feet above tide water, and four miles from Furney, a bordering town of France. The city is the capital of the 22d Swiss canton, and contains 25,000 inhabitants; being one half of the whole population. It is noted for being the birth place of Calvin, the celebrated reformer, the scene of his first labors, and the place of his death. It contains his bones, without a monument or inscription.

Geneva is called the Athens of Switzerland, on account of the attention paid to science. It has a flourishing university, founded in 1368, and resorted to by youth from various parts of Europe. It has a public library, an observatory built in 1770, and an academic museum of natural science, founded in 1818.

The inhabitants of this canton, little exceeding 50,000 in number, are remarkably fond of participating in the business of legislation. Their general assembly consists of 256 members, being one to every sixty adult males. This democratic feature in their constitution is balanced by a council of state, consisting of four syndics and twenty counsellors of noble blood, possessing the executive power, and dignified with such badges of distinction as the cluster of inhabitants composing this canton could give. In 1825 a penitentiary was built after the model and established upon the principles of that of New York.

GERMANY. The German empire as it existed before the French revolution, is bounded east by western Prussia, Poland, Hungary and Croatia, south by the Adriatic, Italy and Switzerland, west by France and the Netherlands, and north by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, extending in latitude from 45° to 55° north, and covering an area of 250,000 square miles in the centre of Europe. It is watered by 500 considerable rivers, sixty of which are navigable, and contains a population of 30,000,000. This empire was composed of a great number of principalities or small governments, varying in population from 100,000 to 10,000,000, and independent of each other except as to some general objects, which were regulated by a diet of the whole empire. The princes or kings were absolute monarchs within their own precincts: neither constitutions nor legislative bodies circumscribing their powers, were known.

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GOVERNMENT. The general imperial government was an elective monarchy, not in the sense, however, in which the term elective is used in the United States, where it always implies a choice, either mediately or immediately, by the people. In the early periods of the empire, the choice of an emperor was made by the sovereigns of each principality, assembled as often as occasion required, either in person or by delegation, at Frankfort, on the river Maine. In later periods, the small principalities lost their right as electors. The greater powers always attended at the election of an emperor; the smaller ones finding their influence of little avail, sometimes neglected to attend. Such omission was construed into a relinquishment of the right, until the privilege became ultimately confined to eight of the principal powers. In addition to the exclusive right of electing an emperor, they exercised the privilege of drawing up a capitulation, stipulating the terms on which the emperor elect should manage the affairs of the empire. At every election, new conditions were added to the capitulation, tending to change the constitution of the empire, and circumscribe the power of its chief. In addition to these privileges, the electoral colleges deliberated on the general affairs of the empire, and formed themselves into a separate chamber or college in the general diet, claiming a right to all the great offices of government, and actually possessing the regal dignity, though not the title of majesty.

The principle by which this college of electors professed to be governed, was, that they should choose the fittest candidate; such, however, was the predominating influence of the house of Austria, that it became a matter of course to choose the archduke; and though nominally elective, the office became hereditary in his family.

DIETS AND COURTS. The emperor summoned two general diets annually, which were held at Ratisbon in his patrimonial dominions on the Danube. It consisted of three colleges or chambers; 1st, that of the electors; 2d, that of the princes, sovereigns of the empire, divided into temporal and spiritual benches; and 3d, the chamber of delegates from the free imperial cities.

There were two judicial tribunals, whose jurisdiction extended over the whole empire, the imperial chamber and the aulic council; the latter had concurrent jurisdiction with the former, and also took cognizance of a number of cases peculiar to itself. Their proceedings were equally noted for delay and impotence. The history of these courts, and the proceedings of the diet for the last two centuries, exhibits the weakness of any system of government, not having within itself the power of executing its own laws on its own subjects. Though the power of making war and peace was given to the general diet, it was not taken from the individual sovereignties. They could make war and

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contract alliances for their states, in opposition to the empire, and might be engaged in their separate capacities on one side, and obliged to furnish their contingents as members of the empire on the other.

In the early periods of Germany, it was considered a continuation of the Roman empire, and the emperor had, in addition to his other titles, that of king of the Romans. This in later periods was of no other effect, than to give him an excuse for interfering in the affairs of Italy, and of adding to his dominions as many of its principalities as he could conquer.

GERMANY UNDER NAPOLEON. This unwieldy fabric was about crumbling to pieces from its own weight and weakness, at the commencement of the French revolution, and afforded that nation an easy conquest. All the provinces south of the Rhine comprehending the fairest portion of Germany, were incorporated with the French republic, and that river declared to be the natural boundary of France on the north, by the convention. Bonaparte having placed some of his family as kings in the principal sovereignties on the north, declared that the German empire had ceased to exist, and ordered its princes to form an association, called the confederacy of the Rhine, of which he declared himself the Protector. On the 6th of August, 1805, Francis II. emperor of Germany, then nothing better than a vassal of Bonaparte, formally resigned his dignity as head of the empire. The reasons assigned by him were, that the treaty of Presburgh which he had made with Bonaparte, required it; and that the formation of a new confederacy was inconsistent with his office and rank as emperor. This resignation, presented to a diet which was itself about expiring, was accepted; since which the dignity, office, and duties of emperor of Germany and the diet, as formerly constituted, have ceased to exist. In this manner Germany became an appendage of France, and created in the mind of Bonaparte an assurance that he could conquer Europe.

GERMANIC CONFEDERATION. The political condition of Germany remained in this state until the fall of Bonaparte, when it came under the cognizance of the congress of Vienna. It was one of the most important and difficult subjects which fell under the consideration of that body. It was finally agreed that neither the empire of Germany, nor the office of emperor, should be resuscitated; but that a system to which they gave the name of the Germanic Confederation, should be substituted in its place. This was formed July 16th, 1815. Its object was to secure the independence and inviolability, and preserve the internal peace of the states. Germany again presents the semblance of a political whole, or a union in form possessing no strength, and resembling in all its essential points of weakness,

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the old constitution of the empire. In one respect, its weakness is still greater; it has not even a nominal executive head.

DIET OF THE CONFEDERACY. This confederation now consists of thirty-four monarchical states and four free cities, who have entered into the compact as equal sovereigns. The principal monarchical states, are Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, Denmark, and the Netherlands. The free cities are Lubec, Frankfort, Bremen, and Hamburg. In this confederacy, Austria, Prussia, Denmark, and the Netherlands, act only for their German dominions. The affairs of this confederation are regulated by a general diet, consisting of plenipotentiaries from the thirty-eight sovereignties which compose it, appointed, recalled, or continued, at pleasure, by their respective governments. Its sessions are permanent, and held at the free city of Frankfort.

It is constituted in two forms; first, as a general assembly, in which each of the thirty-eight constituent parts has at least one vote. Austria and the five large kingdoms have four votes each, those of the second class, two, and the others one, making seventy in the whole. In making fundamental laws, admitting new members into the confederacy, and regulating its religious concerns, unanimity is required; and, on all other occasions, a majority of two thirds. The other form of the diet is called the ordinary assembly, in which the thirty-eight powers have but seventeen votes; the larger members have one vote each, and the smaller ones classed, so that from two to four of them must unite to cast a single vote. This assembly brings forward and discusses all propositions made to the diet, which are sent to the other to be decided without discussion. It acts by a simple majority of nine votes. Austria presides in both assemblies, and has a casting vote in the smaller one. The business appropriate to the diet, is to preserve the integrity and independence of the German states; but they have not the power of enforcing their decrees in the last resort. One object of the confederacy is the legal equality of all Christian denominations, and the establishment of a common civic law throughout Germany. The subjects of each state have a right to emigrate, and to hold real property in any other member of the confederacy.

The thirteenth article of the act of union of the 8th of June, 1815, by which this confederation came into existence, provides that each state shall have a popular representation. This article was introduced to satisfy the people, without any intention of being substantially executed, and has since been practically explained in such a way, that mere mockeries of constitutions, like that of Prussia, have been deemed a compliance.

This association of the powers composing the Germanic Confederation, has been successful in maintaining its internal tranquility, and keeping down the revolutionary spirit which has

made its appearance in other parts of Europe; and no foreign wars have existed in which the confederacy has been engaged since its organization. As to the influence of Germany on the general affairs of Europe, it does not depend on this confederation, but on the strength and resources of each member. This Germanic union, as it is called, resembles, in its general character of weakness and inefficiency, as well as in many of its provisions, that of the United States, previous to their present constitution.

There is a general similarity of character throughout the numerous principalities. Its basis rests upon rectitude, frankness, industry, and frugality. The people are described as inveterate smokers, incessant talkers, and prolific writers. German literature is proverbial, and distinguished for deep research. There are twenty-four universities in Germany. The peasantry

Women Reaping.

are poor and frugal; much of the labor of the field, especially in harvest time, is done by women.

AUSTRIA. The Austrian monarchy, or empire, as it is more properly called, (Francis II., after his resignation of the title and office of emperor of Germany, having assumed the title of Francis I. emperor of Austria,) consists, first, of its hereditary states, forming part of the German confederacy, and comprehending the archduchy of Austria or Austria proper, Bohemia and Moravia, and sundry small provinces containing 76,000 square miles, and ten millions of inhabitants. Secondly, the states of Hungary and Dalmatia, containing a population of eleven millions. Thirdly, the Italian kingdom, with four millions of inhabitants. And fourthly, the kingdom of Gallacia, with two adjacent provinces containing also four millions; the whole empire consists of 256,000 square miles of territory, and 37,000,000 of inhabitants.

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This extent of territory and population in the centre of Europe, with the predominating influence of Austria in the Germanic Confederation, and as an important member of the holy alliance, constitute it one of the principal powers of Europe; its central position, enabling it to direct its force with the greater ease to any required point. Austria maintains in time of peace a standing army of 270,000 men, with a supplementary one, or corps de reserve, of 480,000. It has twenty-five fortresses, occupied by troops, and sixty fortified towns. Its navy consists of three ships of the line, six frigates, and ten small vessels. Its public debt is $340,000,000, and its annual revenue $110,000,000. The inhabitants of Austria, as to their religion, are 24,000,000 catholics, 3,000,000 of the Greek church, and 3,000,000 of protestants.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Austria is an absolute monarchy, exercised with extreme rigor, with the view of exterminating the seeds of political liberty. Since the commencement of the French revolution, and the consequent progress of liberal principles in Europe, the Austrian government seems to have been panic struck with apprehensions for its own safety, and every method which ingenuity could devise, has been adopted to put down the spirit of the people.

Austria has had more influence than any other state in Europe in suppressing liberal opinions, and resisting the claims of the people for constitutional government. Its subjects are forbidden to express any opinions either of praise or blame on the measures of the administration. The citizens are cut off from literary intercourse with other nations, by a two-fold cencorship, established on the frontiers, allowing the introduction of no books into the empire, but such as are approved by the censors. These officers, from time to time, publish a list of prohibited books. Some are entirely condemned, and others allowed only to be read by the learned. By these restrictions the nation has for a long time been deprived of the means of high intellectual improvement. In order to smother every liberal sentiment, foreigners, especially the Swiss, engaged as private instructors, have been expelled the empire; and in July, 1834, several persons, on account of their opinions and writings, were forbidden to enter the Austrian States. A decree was also passed, that all books written by Austrians abroad, should undergo a censorship before they were allowed to be brought into the empire, and the decree afterwards extended to engravings, lithographs, and other prints.

A special congress of the Germanic Confederation was held under the direction of Austria in 1820, the object of which, according to its own resolves, was to provide for the safety and internal order of Germany. The alarm which gave occasion to this extraordinary assembly was the revolutionary movements in the south of Europe.

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Among other measures to suppress liberal principles, they passed decrees for the establishment of a strict civil police in the universities, since which, these institutions have been brought under the surveillance of their respective governments, by whom officers have been appointed to watch over the political conduct of the students. Periodical works, and all pamphlets containing less than twenty sheets, were put under a strict censorship, and the diet was to have the right to suppress any books which disturbed the peace, or attacked the dignity of any member of the confederacy, or had a tendency so to do. This congress complained of the dangerous theories becoming every day more widely spread, and appointed a central police committee for the detection and prosecution of secret political societies, and checking demagogue tendencies. Under such a regimen, the Austrians trouble themselves little about the political condition of the country. Good natured, cheerful and lively, eating, drinking, dancing, music, and women make up the sum of an Austrian's happiness. If the emperor allows the unrestricted enjoyment of these indulgences, he receives the approbation of his subjects, let the affairs of state be managed as they may. The administration of justice in ordinary cases, where politics are not concerned, is impartial.

FRANCIS I. Francis I., emperor of Austria, died at Vienna on the 3d of March, 1835, aged 67. His son, Ferdinand I., is now the reigning emperor.

Prince Metternich is chancellor of the court and state, and minister of foreign affairs. He was born 1773, and has had the principal direction of Austrian affairs for the last thirty years. In diplomatic skill and intrigue, he is the counterpart of Talleyrand. He has been the principal agent in all the movements of the holy alliance. The policy of Austria under his direction, appears to have had three leading objects; the extension of its territory; the oppression of the countries subject to its control; and the suppression of political inquiry, and of all attempts of its subjects, or those of other nations, to ameliorate their condition. To the latter purpose, not only the diplomatic skill of the minister, but the military force of the nation, has been successfully applied.

Within a few years past, a society has been formed in Austria, called the St. Leopold Foundation, set on foot, as is expressed in its constitution, for the purpose of promoting the greater activity of catholic missions in the United States, and the appropriation of $60,000 in the first instance to that object. The society has the emperor for its patron, Metternich for its principal manager, and the chief officers of state for its zealous promoters.

VIENNA. Vienna, the capital of the empire, stands on the south bank of the Danube, in latitude 48° north, and contains a

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population of 300,000. This city being the great capital of the central empire of Europe, has been the theatre where the general politics of the continent have been discussed and adopted, under the direction and presidency of prince Metternich.

DANUBE. The Danube, the principal river of Austria, and one of the largest in Europe, rises in the grand duchy of Baden. Its source is 2000 feet above tide water, its course is generally eastward, through Bavaria, Austria and Turkey; and after running a distance of 1500 miles, discharges itself into the Black sea at Kilianova, by five mouths. It drains the eastern section of central Europe, and receives thirty navigable rivers in its course. The navigation of this river commences at Ulm in Bavaria. Boats and small vessels descend by force of the current, without sails or oars. The ascending craft are drawn by horses, five tons being allowed to each horse. Most of the descending navigation is by vessels little better than rafts, which at the Black sea, are taken to pieces and sold for lumber.

ITS NAVIGATION. Most of the navigable rivers of Germany pass through the territories of different powers, entering the sea within the limits of other nations than those where they take their rise, involving the question of the right of navigation between the upper and lower proprietors. The congress of Vienna declared that the navigation of all the rivers in Germany should be free. Contrary to the spirit of this declaration, Bavaria and Austria impose heavy duties and embarrassing restrictions on the passage of foreign goods on this river, through their territories. Were these restrictions removed, and steam boats introduced on the river, which is beginning to take place, the trade would be immense. As it is, goods are often sent from France to Ulm, whence they are distributed through Austria and Turkey. Eight thousand river craft arrive annually at Pest, the commercial emporium of Hungary, on the Danube. Trieste is the principal commercial port in the hereditary dominions of Austria, and stands at the head of the gulf of Venice. Three hundred vessels annually enter the port, 150 of which are English, and fifty American. Austria, however, is neither a commercial nor a manufacturing nation; its population is principally agricultural, its soil producing all the necessaries of life, and some of its luxuries.

BAVARIA. The kingdom of Bavaria joins Austria on the west; it contains 32,000 square miles, and 4,000,000 of inhabitants. Its army amounts to 54,000 men, 30,000 of which form its allotment of troops for the Germanic Confederation.

The king of Bavaria was the first to fulfil the promise contained in the thirteenth article of the act of union, which assures to the people that they shall enjoy a constitutional government. These instruments, called constitutions in Germany, are not

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what is understood by the term in the United States, to wit, a civil compact between the citizens themselves, or between them and their rulers, establishing a form of government, and defining its powers; but a mere grant or concession on the part of the king, that his subjects shall enjoy certain privileges which they would not otherwise be allowed. The king of Bavaria promulgated an instrument to this effect, bearing date May 26, 1818. The plan of two chambers was adopted. The chamber of peers, or counsellors of the realm, as they were called, consists of the princes and crown officers, three of the high dignitaries of the catholic church, appointed by the king; sixteen seniors of the families who were formerly members of the German empire; fifteen hereditary peers, and twelve appointed by the king for life. The lower chamber consists of representatives of the lower clergy, both catholic and protestant, of the lesser order of nobility, and of the land holders, and of the principal cities, amounting in the whole to 112. The king appoints the president of this body. The constitution promises liberty and equal rights to all denominations of Christians, and freedom of the press. Imperfect as it is, it is the most liberal of the German constitutions.

Under the government of a wise and liberal prince, Louis I., since 1825, Bavaria has been one of the most prosperous of the German principalities. It ranks among the second order of kingdoms in Europe, but is one of the first of that degree. The present king is a liberal patron of literature. Bavaria has three universities; the one established at Munich has 2000 students; the medical department of the one establishad at Wurtzburg, is esteemed the first in Europe. A number of seminaries are likewise formed for the particular purpose of training instructors for common schools.

Munich, the capital of the kingdom, is situated on a plain on the left bank of the Isar, in latitude 48° north, and contains a population of 100,000. This is celebrated for its excellent police, and wholesome provision for paupers, for which it is indebted to an American born citizen, count Rumford.

COUNT RUMFORD. This distinguished person was born of poor parents, at a village called Rumford, within the limits of what is now the town of Concord, in the state of New Hampshire; his family name was Thompson, and his first employment that of a waiting boy at an inn in his native village. Thompson solicited a clergyman by the name of Williams to "learn him latin," as he expressed himself, and Mr. W. prepared him for college, and furnished him with such aids as enabled him to complete his education.

The war of the American revolution commenced at this time, and Thompson took an active part in favor of Great Britain. He carried the first intelligence of the evacuation of Boston by

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the royal troops, to London. His appearance made a favorable impression upon the British minister, who appointed him his under secretary. Soon after the close of the war he went to Germany, where he gained the confidence of the elector of Bavaria, who made him successively his chamberlain, member of his cabinet, and lieutenant general, complimenting him at the same time with the title of Count Rumford.

Count Rumford improved the condition and discipline of the soldiers; made the punishment less severe, and reduced the expense of maintaining an army. Being afterwards placed at the head of the police at Munich, he removed street begging, and provided a large work house where the beggars were put to work and remunerated for their labor. How much his services were appreciated by the objects of them, appears from the circumstance, that when his life was thought to be in danger from a severe sickness, the whole poor of the city turned out and formed a procession to the cathedral, to offer up mass for his recovery. Such a testimony from catholics in favor of a protestant, was unusual and deeply affecting.

His scientific researches into the nature and property of light and heat, and his improvements in the construction of chimneys, fire places, and stoves, are well known, and have contributed much to the benefit of mankind. His pursuits in science always had some practical object in view. In politics he was an ultra royalist, and held republicanism, in all its forms, in detestation. This, however, did not entirely alienate his affections from his native country. He made provision for the purchase of a medal, to be annually given by a philosophical society in Philadelphia, to some person who should make the most valuable improvement or discovery in some useful science. He died in France, at the age of 61, in 1814.

SAXONY. Saxony lies in the north-east part of Germany, bounded on the north and east by Prussia, on the south by Bohemia, and on the west by Bavaria. After being reduced by the congress of Vienna to one half its original limits, it contains 58,000 square miles, 1,415,000 inhabitants, an army of 13,300 men, 12,000 of whom constitute its contingent of the confederation. Its inhabitants, excepting about 50,000 catholics, are Lutheran protestants. Its government is a monarchy, limited by certain privileges granted to the nobility, prelates and burgesses, the principal of which are that of prescribing the mode in which money shall be raised, and advising the government; but without any definite voice on subjects of importance.

Saxony was one of the last of the European powers which joined the confederacy against Bonaparte. At the commencement of the battle of Leipsic, the Saxon troops were on his side; but early in the action they deserted him, and joined the allies in a body. On account of the lateness of the period at which

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Saxony joined the coalition, that kingdom was not in favor with the congress of Vienna. It was claimed that it should be disfranchised, and its territories added to Prussia. The policy of Metternich prevented this, as it would create too great a power in the immediate neighborhood of Austria. And the king of Prussia was obliged to be contented with taking only one half of Saxony from its hereditary monarch.

PRODUCTIONS OF SAXONY. This kingdom abounds in valuable mines, the principal of which are silver, copper, lead, iron, and quicksilver. Ten thousand men are employed in mining, and fifty thousand on the subsequent processes of the ore. The annual value of its mineral productions is estimated at $3,000,000. Of domestic animals, the principal attention has been bestowed on sheep, which of late have constituted a most important source of national wealth. The merinos were introduced from Spain in 1765, and though removed from latitude 40° to 50° north, the breed improved, and produced a finer quality of wool. The whole number of sheep is estimated at 2,000,000, producing an average of two and a quarter pounds a head, 4,500,000 pounds, of the value of 3,000,000 of dollars.

DRESDEN. Dresden, the capital of Saxony, is situated on the Elbe, and contains a population of 55,000. The kingdom being the principal theatre of the war of 1813, between Bonaparte and the allied powers, Dresden became a point of importance, not only as the capital of the kingdom, but as commanding the navigation of the Elbe. The forces of Napoleon were concentrated at the fortresses of Magdeburg, and Wittemberg, and in the neighborhood of the capital. The whole country around was a fortified camp; and the city suffered the distresses incident to a military occupation, from which it has scarcely recovered.

MOREAU. In one of the battles near Dresden, on the 27th of August, 1813, the celebrated general Moreau, while in company with the emperor Alexander, observing from an eminence the movements of the conflicting armies, received a mortal wound from a cannon shot, of which he died, on the first of September. During the first year of Bonaparte's reign, Moreau was one of his most distinguished generals. He afterwards became his enemy, was involved in Pichegreu's conspiracy, and banished from France. He came to the United States, purchased a beautiful country residence on the banks of the Delaware at Morristown, opposite Trenton, which he occupied several years. A retired life in a country village in the United States, with the little respect paid to laurels gained in foreign wars, has few attractions for ambitious Europeans, who have acquired celebrity in their own country. Moreau readily listened to an invitation from the allied powers in 1813, returned to Europe, and took the principal direction of the Prussian armies against France.

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LEIPSIC. Leipsic, the second city of the kingdom, stands on a large fertile plain, encircled with thriving villages, in latitude 51° north, and has a population of 40,000. The great fairs of Leipsic, are noted in the commerce of Europe. They usually draw together 8 or 10,000 citizens and foreigners, from various parts of Europe. The book trade of Leipsic is extensive, and of a peculiar character. Every German publisher has an agent in the city, who receives and disposes of his publications. The agents send packages twice a week into all parts of Germany. Two great book fairs are also annually held there, at which booksellers attend from various parts of Europe. Germany is noted as being the land of authors. The Leipsic book catalogues exhibit their numbers. The university founded in this city in 1409, is one of the most ancient and distinguished on the continent. It has 1300 students, 70 professors, and a library containing 60,000 printed volumes, and 1600 manuscripts.

This city is noted for the decisive military events which took place within its limits, and in its vicinity, from the 12th to the 19th of October, 1813. Napoleon was then in possession of the city and its environs, with an army of 100,000 men. The grand army of the allies, Austrians, Russians, and Prussians, amounting to 120,000, commanded by the Austrian general Suartzenburg, and attended by their monarchs in person, made an attack on the morning of the 16th of October. The battle was to decide whether Napoleon was to govern Europe, as the sole arbiter of its destinies, or whether it was to remain subject to its hereditary monarchs; a question of great importance to them, but of little consequence to the people. The battle lasted through the day, with various and alternate success, and left the parties at evening much in the same relative situation as in the morning. Napoleon acting on the defensive, and maintaining his position, claimed a victory, and ordered the bells of Leipsic to be rung to announce the event. On the 17th, both armies, as if by mutual consent, reposed. On the 18th, the battle was renewed, and Napoleon compelled to retreat. On the 19th, the retreat became a disorderly flight, and the allies gained a complete victory. Napoleon lost two thirds of his whole army, all his artillery and baggage, and narrowly escaped from capture. These battles were decisive of the fate of Europe, being the termination of Bonaparte's successful military career.

In no country in Europe is education better attended to, and in none of equal extent is the number of printing and book establishments so great. Common schools are established generally in the parishes; the lower classes are taught to read and write, and in the larger towns are schools where the children of the poor are taught gratis. The university of Leipsic has over nine hundred students.

The reigning prince, Frederick Augustus, was born in 1797, and succeeded his uncle, Anthony, in 1836, his father having renounced his claim in his favor.

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HANOVER. Hanover, another important portion of the Germanic Confederacy, was erected into a kingdom, and its constituent parts defined by the congress of Vienna. It consists of Hanover proper, the duchy of Bremen, the principality of Luneburg, and several other small portions, not forming a consolidated, contiguous whole, but several detached parts. Its area is 14,000 square miles, and its population a million and a half, principally Lutheran protestants. While the German empire existed, Hanover, then without its additions, was an important electorate. In 1714, its prince elector became king of Great Britain, under the title of George the first; an event inauspicious to both countries. The king, partial to his hereditary dominions, engaged his adopted nation in wars for their preservation and enlargement, in which his new subjects had no interest; and entailed on them a national debt, which has increased beyond all power of redemption.

Hanover, from being an independent power, has become an appendage of the British empire, notwithstanding the sovereignties of both nations are intended to be kept distinct, the king of Great Britain, as such, having no authority as elector of Hanover.

In 1807, Bonaparte having conquered Germany, associated together several of its northern principalities, of which Hanover was the chief, and formed the kingdom of Westphalia, of which he constituted his brother Jerome, king. This monarchy existed from 1807 to 1814, when it fell to pieces with the rest of Bonaparte's creations, and its various portions were disposed of by the congress of Vienna.

ITS GOVERNMENT. The title and office of elector having ceased by the dissolution of the German empire, Hanover, with sundry appendages, was constituted a kingdom, and George the third, of Great Britain, its king. The succession has continued in George, and William the fourth. The principles of the Hanover government exclude females from the succession, and on the accession of queen Victoria to the British throne, the crown of Hanover passed to Ernest Augustus, (late duke of Cumberland) fourth son of George third, deceased.

CONSTITUTION. In 1819, the prince regent of Great Britain, during the incapacity of the king, exercising the same office in Hanover, gave to it a constitution, in compliance with the 13th article of the Germanic Confederation. This instrument, like the others from the same source, gave the people but the semblance of power. It provided that no untried principles should be introduced, but that the two chambers which were constituted by it, should exercise the same privileges as the provincial deputies had formerly done. They were founded upon the old aristocratic principle, neither chamber being a representation of the people. The prince regent reserved to himself the right of

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modifying this charter at pleasure. The first session of the chambers, under this instrument, commenced December 28th, 1819, and was opened by the duke of Cambridge, brother of the prince regent, and by him delegated to exercise an authority in Hanover, to which neither had title. He informed the chambers that they were divided into two branches only to enable them to investigate the affairs of the country more thoroughly, but not to adopt different principles in their deliberations. Publicity of debate was not allowed, and the privileges of the chambers amounted to little more than the liberty of discussing such matters as the government thought proper to bring before them. The present king, in 1837, issued a proclamation expressing his dissatisfaction with the constitution, and his opinion that it is not binding on him. The people of Hanover are much displeased with this act of their new monarch.

The proceedings of the German princes, in granting to their subjects what are called constitutions, under the 13th article of the confederacy, taught them and the rest of Europe, that nothing which bears any resemblance to the true principles of civil liberty, is to be expected from the hands of an absolute sovereign: if ever obtained, it must be by the exertions of the people in opposition to the claims of hereditary monarchs.

Hanover has one university, 37 gymnasia and latin schools, four seminaries for the education of school masters, and 3561 common schools. Its public debt is 12,000,000 of dollars, and its annual revenue 1,300,000.

Hanover, the capital of this kingdom, is an inconsiderable city, containing a population of 27,000, and deriving its consequence only from being the residence of the court.

HAMBURG: Hamburg, the most considerable of the four free cities which form constituent portions of the Germanic Confederation, is situated on the river Elbe, eighty miles from its mouth. It has a population of 122,000, and also exercises jurisdiction over an adjacent territory containing 28,000 inhabitants. It has an extensive commerce, being the principal port for the introduction of foreign goods into the interior of Germany. This city has suffered by the terrible conflagration with which it was visited in May 1842; the fire continued its ravages for three days; more than two thousand houses in the finest part of the city, were consumed, and the property destroyed, has been estimated at thirty millions of dollars; forty or fifty persons were killed, and one hundred and twenty wounded.

ELBE. The Elbe, one of the principal rivers in Europe, rises in the Carpathian mountains on the borders of Turkey, and pursuing a northwesterly course a distance of 500 miles, passes through Bohemia, Prussia, Saxony, and Hanover, and falls into the German ocean at Cuxhaven, in latitude 54° north. It is navigable for the largest class of merchant ships to Hamburg,

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and for the smaller class to a considerable distance into the interior. Passing through several independent States, the use of its waters for the purposes of navigation have occasioned much contest. The Congress of Vienna indeed declared that the navigation of all the waters of Germany should be free; but the right of that body to make and enforce such a declaration, has been denied, and its effects in a great measure avoided by the lower proprietors, by the imposition of heavy transit duties.

FRANKFORT. ROTHSCHILDS. Frankfort on the river Maine, is the second of the four imperial free cities, as to size and importance. It contains 44,000 inhabitants, and the adjacent territory allotted to it by the Congress of Vienna, has 100 square miles, and 10,000 inhabitants. Frankfort derives much of its political consequence from its being the permanent seat of the Germanic diet. It is also noted for being the birthplace and the principal seat of business of the Rothschilds, the greatest banking house in Europe. This celebrated firm has raised itself from an humble sphere to an unexampled degree of wealth and importance, by a judicious enterprise, a sagacious and systematic series of operations, a reputation for fair dealing, and a correct estimate of human character, aided by a course of events favorable to their views.

The father of the five brothers, who were all living in 1830, was born in Frankfort in 1743, and died in 1812. He was a poor Jew, and left an orphan at the age of eleven, and as was common for persons in that condition, was educated for a teacher. Possessing some knowledge in letters, he obtained at an early period employment as a clerk in a banking house in Hanover. In a few years, by industry and frugality, he acquired sufficient capital to set up a small business in his native city. His activity, intelligence, and integrity, procured him an extensive credit, insomuch, that in 1803, he was enabled to contract for a Danish loan of $4,000,000. The house now consists of five brothers, Anselm, born in 1773, the head of the establishment, residing at Frankfort. Solomon, born in 1774, resides alternately at Berlin and Vienna. Nathan, born in 1777, resides in London. Charles, born in 1788, resides at Naples; and James, born in 1792, resides at Paris.

In 1813, those great political events occurred, which raised this house to the position it has since occupied in the commercial and financial concerns of the world. Some idea of its importance may be formed from the fact, that in the course of twelve years it has raised and loaned to different powers of Europe $500,000,000. The extraordinary success of the Rothschilds, aside from the great opportunities which they have enjoyed from political circumstances favorable to their enterprise, is to be attributed to a strict adherence to two fundamental maxims enjoined on them as the dying commands of their father.

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First, that all their operations should be common; every proposition of magnitude made to one should be submitted to the deliberations of all; and that no enterprise should be undertaken until it should be fully discussed in all its bearings, and when resolved upon, that it should be executed with vigor by their united exertions. The second was, not to aim at exorbitant profits, but to set limits to every operation, and as far as human prudence and oversight can do, to render its success independent of contingencies. In the strict obedience of the latter injunction lies the great secret of the Rothschild's success. The reasonableness of their terms, the punctuality with which they execute their contracts, the simplicity and clearness of their plans, and their judicious manner of carrying them into effect, has given them an unlimited credit, and enabled them to take an important part in all great financial operations.

A constant exchange of couriers is kept up between the brothers, which are frequently in advance of those of the government. As Jews, they are excluded from any share in the management of the political concerns of Europe; but as money changers they have a commanding influence.

BREMEN AND LUBEC. The two other free cities are Bremen on the Weser, with a population of 38,000; the whole territory assigned to this city by the congress of Vienna, contains seventy-four square miles, and 48,000 inhabitants; and Lubec, situated on an island in the Trave, fourteen miles from the Baltic, and thirty-five northeast of Hamburg. The population of the city amounts to 22,000, the territory allotted to it contains 116 square miles, and an additional population of 18,000. In 1827, a convention of friendship, navigation, and commerce, was concluded by the United States with the free Hanseatic cities of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubec, regulating the intercourse with them upon principles of reciprocity.

HANSEATIC LEAGUE. The political condition of these cities had its origin in the 13th century, when a number of cities in Germany associated together for mutual protection against pirates and robbers. This association was called the Hanseatic League, and its members, Hanse towns. The confederacy ceased with the occasion which gave it birth; but some of its principal members retained their political privileges, and in the general settlement of the affairs of Germany, these four were allowed to remain free states. Their constitutions are similar in principle, all being of an aristocratic character, though denominated republics.

The government of Hamburg consists of four burgomasters and twenty-four counsellors, who fill vacancies in their own body, by a combination of chance and choice. Three of the burgomasters, and eleven of the counsellers must be lawyers, and the others merchants. To the senate are attached four

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syndics and four secretaries. The ordinary public business is transacted by the senate alone. The city is divided into five parishes, each of which sends thirty-six members to a college of 180, from which are chosen a council of 60, and from them a body of 15 elders, united with the senate. The senators and elders alone receive salaries. The court of appeals of the free cities of the Germanic confederacy is the highest judicial tribunal. Each city is bound to furnish its military contingent; of which Austria has the direction, and employs it chiefly in suppressing liberal principles.

NETHERLANDS. The kingdom of Netherlands, as put together and given to William, prince of Orange, under the name of king William I., in 1815, consisted of the seven united provinces of Holland, the ten Belgic provinces formerly subject to Austria, and the German duchy of Luxemburg, bounded on the south and southwest by France, on the east by Germany, and on the north and west by the north sea, between 50° and 54° north latitude, and contains 25,000 square miles, and 6,000,000 of inhabitants, nearly equally divided between protestants and catholics. Its foreign possessions are in Asia, the island of Java and several neighboring small islands, containing 85,000 square miles, and 6,500,000 inhabitants. In Africa, 100 square miles, and 15,000 inhabitants; and in America 10,000 square miles, and 90,000 inhabitants; making an aggregate of foreign territory of 958,000 square miles, and 6,667,000 inhabitants. This estimate, it should be noted, includes all the inhabitants of the islands and territories in which the Dutch have permanent establishments; nine tenths of which are natives, over whom Europeans have no control.

BELGIUM. The territory of Belgium, composing a part of this kingdom, was at an early period of the revolution conquered by France, and incorporated with that republic. Holland underwent various mutations, at one time forming a Batavian republic, in imitation of, and under the direction of France; and at another, it formed the kingdom of Holland, under Louis Bonaparte. At the general peace the condition of these states of course fell under the cognizance of the regulators of Europe. None of their proceedings were attended with more difficulties, or more unfortunate results, than the formation of this kingdom. It was indeed a compact, contiguous, and densely populated territory, well situated to form one respectable state, had the religion, manners, genius, language and inclination of the inhabitants led to it, but these indicated any thing rather than a harmonious union. The Dutch were protestants, engaged in commercial pursuits, having a language, manners and customs peculiar to themselves.

The Belgians, or Flemings, as they were formerly called, were Catholics in their religion, agriculturists and manufac-

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turers in their employments, and essentially French in their language and manners. Nothing short of absolute power, wielded by a despot, could hold together such a heterogeneous mass. Neither party were satisfied with the union. It was, however, carried into effect, and in March, 1815, king William I. was proclaimed king of the Netherlands, prince of Liege, and duke of Luxemburg; and in June following, acceded to the confederacy for his German dominions.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. The same year, a convention was called to meet at Brussels to form a constitution for the United Kingdom. At this meeting, Belgium had a greater number of members, in proportion to its population, than Holland. An instrument was drawn up purporting to be a constitution for the kingdom. On taking the final question of acceptance, there were 1323 votes polled, 527 in favor, and 796 against it. This, by a singular mode of computation, was declared to be an affirmative vote. It was found that a number of votes had been given conditionally, which was contrary to rule, and that 126 votes had been given on account of religious motives, which were deemed insufficient, these were subtracted from the negative, and added to the affirmative, as were also 280 votes of members who were absent. This mode of counting the votes, gave a majority in favor of the constitution. It was approved by the king, and went into operation August 24th, 1815. By this instrument, the kingdom is declared to be a limited constitutional monarchy, hereditary in the male line of the house of Orange; females to succeed only in case of the total extinction of males. The king can wear no foreign crown. He has plenary executive powers, according to European ideas of that office. Important measures are to be submitted to a council of state, composed of twenty-four members, taken, as far as practicable, from all the provinces. The king, however, is finally to decide on such measures, and if he pleases, may decide contrary to the opinions of the council. His determination is communicated to the minister of state. The States general, or legislative body, is to consist of two chambers, a senate appointed by the king for life, to consist of not more than sixty, nor less than forty members; senators must be forty years old. The second chamber consists of 110 members, divided equally between Holland and Belgium, chosen for three years, with a provision for the renewal of one third annually. After this parade of forming a legislative body, an American is astonished at the restriction of its powers. Neither house originate any propositions; they all proceed from the king, who first sends them to the second chamber, which, after discussion and acceptance, sends them to the first for ratification.

The States general have indeed the right of making proposals for laws to the king, in which case they must originate with the

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second chamber, and if not approved by the king, must be withdrawn, and are not to be published or presented a second time during the same session. Personal liberty, the freedom of religious opinion and worship, and a correct system for the administration of justice, were secured by competent provisions. This instrument, one of the most liberal of the modern European constitutions, affords another evidence of the degree of political liberty which the people are to expect from the hands of hereditary sovereigns. The royal residence, and the place of meeting of the States general, was to be alternately at the Hague and Brussels.

WILLIAM I. William I. was born hereditary prince of Orange in 1772. The office of stadtholder in the Dutch government, previous to the French revolution, was hereditary in his family. It embraced all the important executive powers of a limited monarchy. On the death of his father, in 1806, the title and office descended to him; both, however, were merely nominal, the country from which he derived them, being subject to the powers of France. He was an active and brave officer in the armies opposed to Bonaparte, and a brave, mild, and judicious prince, after his succession to the throne of the Netherlands, consulting the good of his subjects, and endeavoring to promote harmony among them.

Full, however, in the belief of the prerogatives of hereditary sovereigns, and feeling the need of foreign aid to keep together the discordant parts of his kingdom, he joined the holy alliance, in 1816. Under his administration, the Netherlands were recovering from the calamities of a twenty years' war, of which the country had often been the theatre. Nothing, however, could reconcile the Belgians to this union. Their prince was a protestant, and of course a heretic, and to them a foreigner.

STATES GENERAL. The States general exhibited the singular picture of a legislative body, deliberating in three different languages, the Dutch, the Flemish, and the French, neither of which were understood by all the members. An unsuccessful attempt was made to obviate this difficulty, by an ordinance directing that all public proceedings should be in the Dutch idiom of the German language. This increased the confusion; few fully understanding this dialect, the ordinance was soon revoked, and the debates continued in the languages most familiar to the different speakers.

REVOLUTION OF 1830. The Belgians complained that they had not a representation in the second chamber in proportion to their numbers, and that offices were held principally by Hollanders. This, to a certain extent, was admitted, and the apology for it, that there were few Belgians competent to discharge pub-

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lic trusts, by no means tended to allay the excitement. The tariff, or manner of imposing taxes, was a constant subject of contest between the commercial and manufacturing portions of the kingdom; Holland being disposed to lay the principal burdens on agriculture and manufactures, and Belgium to raise the revenue from commerce.

There was no censorship of the press, subjecting publications to a previous examination and allowance, but the severity with which alleged libels were punished by the courts, without the intervention of juries, in effect produced the same results, and was a subject of loud complaint. The Brussels anti-administration papers fell under the severe animadversion of the judiciary. Discontents, arising from a combination of these causes, gradually increased, and ripened into an insurrection in August, 1830, at Brussels. The successful revolution in France of the preceding month, gave countenance to, and greatly contributed to this event.

The king convoked an extraordinary meeting of the States General at the Hague, on this account, on the 13th of September. He told the Brussels deputies in a firm tone, that he had by the constitution the sole right of appointing and dismissing ministers; that addresses presented to him on this subject with a pistol to his breast, could not be listened to without a violation of his dignity; that the States General must be consulted on all subjects of general moment, and that their legitimate demands should be acceded to; and that he would consider the whole subject of the condition of the country more fully. He opened the session on the 23d of September, in a speech, stating that the constitution could only be altered by them, and recommended that they should take into consideration the proposed changes in the relations which the two great sections of his kingdom bore to each other. In this speech, William manifested a readiness to acquiesce in the dismemberment of his kingdom, rarely to be met with in crowned heads, who usually measure their importance by the extent of their possessions.

On the 29th of September, the States General declared, by eighty-nine votes against nineteen, the legislative and administrative separation of Belgium from Holland, but to remain under the common sovereignty of the house of Orange, and on the first of October, the king ordered the committee to draw up an instrument of separation on liberal principles, to be presented for the deliberation and acceptance of the States General. The instrument was approved, and the two sections of the kingdom became disconnected.

INDEPENDENCE OF BELGIUM. The first national congress of Belgium, convened November 10th, 1830, and on the 18th declared the absolute independence of that portion of the kingdom. On the 22d they adopted a monarchical form of government by

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a vote of 174 against 13, and on the 24th, by a vote of 161 to 28, excluded the house of Orange from the throne of Belgium. On the 3d of February they chose the duke of Nemours, eldest son of Phillippe, king of France, to be king of Belgium, by a vote of 97 against 95. This would have been little else than making the kingdom a province of France. The king of France refused to allow his son to accept the crown. The great opposition to his election promised nothing favorable to a quiet administration. The reason assigned by the king of France for declining the honor proffered to his son was, that it would excite jealousies in other nations against the increasing power of France, and probably disturb the peace of Europe.

On the 4th of June, the Belgian congress proceeded to a second choice of a sovereign, when Leopold, prince of Saxe Coburg, was elected; of the 196 members present, he had the votes of 152; 19 did not vote at all, 14 voted for another candidate, and 10 were opposed to the election of any king. A constitution was formed, by which the powers of the crown were more limited, and greater liberty enjoyed by the people, than in any other European monarchy. Leopold accepted this offer, and took the oath to support the constitution. Belgium thenceforward became organized as a limited monarchy, and was admitted into the family of nations.

LEOPOLD. Leopold derives his original title, prince of Saxe Coburg, from a little state in Germany, containing a population of 80,000, of which an elder brother is the duke or king. Leopold was born in 1790, and had nothing to distinguish him, but an empty title of prince, without power or revenue. In 1816, he was married to Charlotte, daughter of the prince of Wales; and who, it was expected, would one day succeed to the British throne. This was said to be a match of choice. Leopold visiting England in 1814, in the train of the emperor Alexander, attracted the attention and gained the affections of the princess. The projected match between her and William prince of Orange, son of the king of Netherlands, on her earnest solicitation was given up, and the one with Leopold permitted. She died in 1817, at the age of twenty-one, and he enjoys a pension from the British government, of $50,000 a year, in consequence of this connection. He lived in retirement on this income, and little noticed, until his election to the throne of Greece, in 1830, and his subsequent election and acceptance of the throne of Belgium.

He has recently married the daughter of the king of France. No important events have occurred to develope his character. His refusal of the throne of Greece was an evidence of a sound judgment; whether his acceptance of that of Belgium detracts from it, remains yet to be decided. A singular course of events has connected him with the royal blood of two of the principal kingdoms of Europe, and given him the offer of two crowns.

Although this severance of the Netherlands was desirable to both sections, it was not accomplished without bloodshed. At its commencement, and during its progress, riots took place at Brussels, and other places in Belgium. Important subjects of dispute arose between the two kingdoms, as they were now constituted principally in relation to Luxemburg, a German duchy which strictly belonged to neither. Belgium claimed it as a contiguous territory; and William as being a personal grant to him by the Congress of Vienna, in satisfaction for some other German possessions taken from him by that body. Its population amounts to 300,000; its chief city, Luxemburg, is one of the strongest fortified places in Germany; and the possession of the duchy gives its owner a voice in the Germanic diet.

During the progress of the controversy the five great powers of Europe, France, Austria, Prussia, Great Britain and Russia, took upon themselves the office of arbitrators, to settle the terms of the separation by their ambassadors at London. No less than sixty protocols or propositions for settlement passed between the arbitrators. Leopold being the adopted son of Great Britain and France, was supposed to have a greater influence in the conferences than his antagonist. Luxemburg was finally awarded to the Belgians. A war between Holland and Belgium took place. The Dutch seized Antwerp; a French army marched to its relief, and William was compelled to acquiesce.

BELGIUM. The territory of Belgium contains eleven thousand square miles, and 4,150,000 inhabitants. Brussels, its capital, is a pleasant inland city, containing a population of 75,000. It is a favorite resort of the French and English. Ten miles to the southwest of the city is the village of Waterloo, on the borders of the forest of Soignies, famous for being the head quarters of Wellington, and giving name to the battle of the 18th of June, 1815, which was fought in its neighborhood, and decided the fate of Europe. On the evening of the 17th, Wellington was indulging himself with the belles of Brussels at a ball, when news arrived of the near approach of Napoleon, with a superior force, and called him from that scene of gaiety and pleasure, to one of hard fighting and victory.

The principal commercial city is Antwerp, on the Scheldt, accessible to vessels of the largest size, and the depot for much of the interior. A thousand ships enter its ports annually. It has a population of 80,000. Its cathedral is the most distinguished public edifice. The steeple, built of stone, exceeds 400 feet in height.

Belgium, or as it was formerly more usually called, Flanders seems to have been the common battle ground of Europe. It has been the principal seat of more wars, and the theatre of more battles, than any other country of equal extent in the world. Most of them were wars in which the people of Flan-

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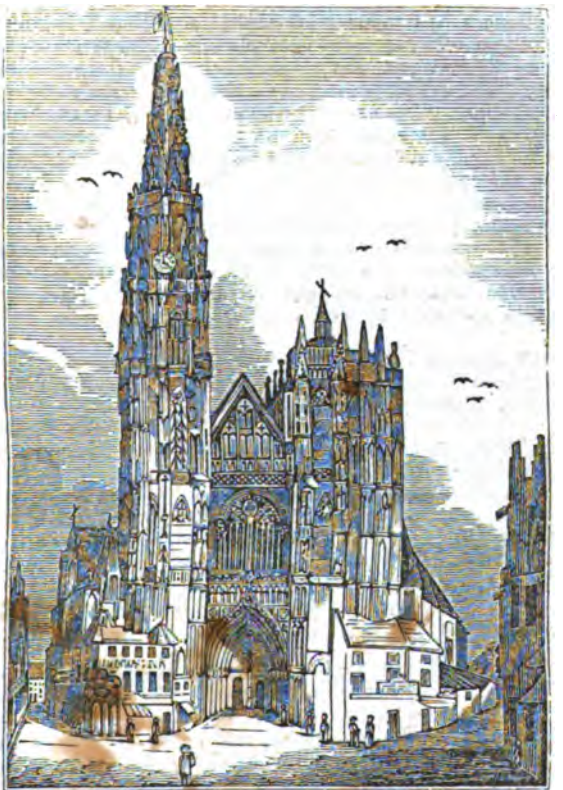
ders had no immediate interest; and served them only to desolate and destroy their country.



West front of Antwerp Cathedral.

HOLLAND. Holland, or the seven United Provinces, as they were formerly called, retained their king, the common name of the Netherlands, and their constitution, after the separation; and with the additions which were finally acceded to, by the protocols of the arbitrating powers, their population amounts to nearly 3,000,000. A singular feature in the face of this country is, that a considerable portion of it is below the level of the adjacent seas, and is protected from inundation by dikes built at great expense. The dikes are sometimes broken through, and the surrounding country flooded. Holland is intersected in every

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direction by canals, on which passengers and goods are transported in boats, drawn by horses, at the rate of from three to five miles an hour.

Amsterdam, the commercial capital of Holland, is built on piles, and on land recovered from the sea. It contains a population of 200,000, and was formerly one of the richest cities in Europe. The events of the French revolution nearly ruined its commerce, and it has not yet recovered its ancient prosperity. A new canal, extending from its harbor to the extremity of North Holland, a distance of fifty miles, promises great advantage to the commerce of the city. The canal is designed for sloop navigation.

The political capital of Holland is the Hague, a pleasant city, thirty miles southerly from Amsterdam, and three from the sea. It has a population of 44,000. It derives its principal consequence from being the residence of the court, and foreign ambassadors, and often the seat of important negotiations.

River Scheldt. The river Scheldt rises in France, passes through both divisions of the Netherlands, and enters the sea at Flushing. It is navigable for sea vessels to Antwerp. Passing in a short distance, in part through the territories of three powers, its navigation has ever been the subject of deep interest, and sometimes of war, between the upper and lower proprietors on its waters. When the navigation is shut or prohibited, Amsterdam supplies Belgium and much of the interior of Germany with foreign merchandize; when it is open, Antwerp has the same trade. The Dutch succeeded in stopping its navigation for nearly two hundred years before the French revolution. It was then opened, and was decreed to be kept open by the Congress of Vienna.

Character of the Dutch. The condition of the soil and climate of Holland, seems to have much influence on the character and manners of its inhabitants. The humidity of the climate renders them phlegmatic and slow. The Dutch are not dissolute; this has been imputed rather to the coldness of their disposition and their parsimonious turn, than to any principle of superior virtue. There is much less depravity and crime among the lower classes in Holland, than in any other country in Europe. To go abroad a little, smoke much, eat and drink often, and of the best, form the principal enjoyments of the rich Hollanders. They do not appriciate, like the French, the pleasures of social intercourse, but relish in a higher degree the quiet of domestic life. The only intercourse which does take place in society, usually concerns business or profession.

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CHAPTER VI.

Denmark. Its component parts. Military and marine force. Sound duties. Their origin and present amount. Copenhagen. Danish fleet taken by the English. Education and schools. Frederick VI. Christian VIII. Scandinavia. Sweden. Constitution. Election of Bernadotte. Religion. Norway. Its constitution. Storthing, or general assembly. Religion. Lapland. Extent. Physical character. Means of subsistence, and character of the inhabitants. Reindeer. Russia. Its extent. Population. Army and navy. Military colonies. Government. Meeting of a convention to form a constitution. Grades of inhabitants. Cossacks. Peter I. Catharine II. Alexander. Nicholas. Religion of Russia. Greek church. Education. Chief cities. Petersburg. Moscow. Its conflagration. Rebuilding. Archangel. Odessa. Astracan. Tobolski.

DENMARK. The kingdom of Denmark consists of the islands of Zealand and Funen, at the entrance of the Baltic, of the peninsula of Jutland, and the duchy of Sleswick. The duchies of Holstein and Luneburg in Germany, also belong to it, constituting it a member of the Germanic confederacy. Denmark proper, exclusive of these duchies, contains only 17,000 square miles, and 1,600,000 inhabitants. Its other possessions are Iceland, and Faroe isles, Greenland, some places on the coast of Guinea, Tranquebar and Serampore, in the East Indies, and St Thomas, St. Johns, and St. Croix, in the West Indies. The whole population of the kingdom and its colonies, amounts to 2,250,000.

GOVERNMENT. Previous to the year 1660, the kingdom of Denmark, like that of Sweden and Norway, was a limited and elective monarchy. In 1660, a revolution commenced which terminated in 1666, by a solemn act of the States, renouncing their rights, and declaring the king to be vested with absolute power, and Denmark thereafter became one of the most despotic kingdoms in Europe. Norway remained a constituent part of the Danish kingdom until 1814, when it was ceded to Sweden, contrary to the wishes of its inhabitants. The navy of Denmark consists of four ships of the line, seven frigates, and eighteen small vessels, and its standing military force of 38,000 men. Its religion is Lutheran, according to the Augsburg confession, but all sects are tolerated, and admitted to hold office without distinction.

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Sound Duties. At Elsinore, on the eastern coast of the island of Zealand, Denmark collects the sound duties from all vessels entering the Baltic. The average number of ships of all nations, paying these duties annually, is 10.000. The toll paid by English, Dutch, French, and Swedish ships, is one per cent. on the estimated value of their cargoes; and on those of other nations, one and a quarter. The amount is little short of a million of dollars annually. The entrance to the Baltic at this place, is four miles in width, and is defended by a strong fortress called Cronberg castle. The ship channel passes near the fort, where vessels are brought to and pay the required duties. The commencement of this impost is not ascertained by any authentic historical records. In the 15th century it is spoken of as an ancient custom. It probably had its origin in the purpose of maintaining light-houses for the benefit of navigation through the narrows, and when first established might not have been more than sufficient for that object. In later periods it is a principal source of revenue to the crown, and voluntarily submitted to by other nations.

Copenhagen. Copenhagen, the capital of the kingdom, also stands on this island, at the bottom of a large bay, forming its harbor, and contains a population of 100,000. In 1807, a considerable portion of the city was destroyed by an English fleet under Lord Nelson. In the war of that period between England and France, Denmark had anxiously sought to preserve a neutrality. She then possessed a valuable fleet, which was lying in the harbor of Copenhagen; a French army appeared in the neighborhood, requiring Denmark to adopt Bonaparte's continental system, as he called it, that of excluding British productions from the continent. Great Britain, apprehensive that Copenhagen would be occupied by the French, and the Danish fleet fall into their hands, required that it should be removed to an English harbor for safety. Denmark refused, and an English fleet, of twenty-three ships of the line entered the harbor, and bombarded Copenhagen for three days. Four hundred houses were laid in ruins; 1300 inhabitants perished. No effectual resistance was attempted, and the city surrendered on the 7th of September. The Danish fleet, then consisting of eighteen ships of the line, and fifteen frigates, were conducted into an English port.

Education. Education is more cultivated in Denmark than in almost any other absolute government. The king and his enlightened and able minister, Bernstorffe, are its patrons. They seem to have reversed the principle, that an absolute government relies for its safety on the ignorance of the people. It is rare to find a subject of Denmark who cannot read. In 1822. the system of mutual instruction, on the Lancasterian plan, was introduced under the patronage of the government; in the

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succeeding year, the number of schools on this plan was 244, and in 1829, 2500. Much is due to the efforts of a benevolent society established at Copenhagen, for the promotion of elementary learning. This institution is not confined, as in France, to reading, writing, arithmetic, and religious instruction, but extends to history, geography, and the higher branches of literature.

FREDERICK VI. Frederick VI. was born in 1768. In 1808, he succeeded to the crown on his father's death. Some of his good deeds, were, the abolition of feudal servitude, by which tenants were bound to render services to their landlords at pleasure; the prohibition of the African slave trade, in 1792, at an earlier period than any other power, and its final abolition in 1803; the establishment of a regular and impartial system of jurisprudence; and an anxious, though unsuccessful endeavor to maintain neutrality in the European wars. This wise course has been rewarded by the affections of his subjects, insomuch that Norway, though a subjected and dependent kingdom, was unwilling to be separated. Denmark has been free from the insurrections and revolutions which have shaken other governments, and though in theory one of the most absolute and despotic of the European powers, in the conduct of its affairs it has been one of the best.

CHRISTIAN VIII. Frederick VI. died at Copenhagen, on the 5th of December, 1839. The throne is now filled by his cousin, and legitimate successor, Christian VIII.

SCANDINAVIA. The great northern peninsula of Europe, anciently called Scandinavia, is almost wholly surrounded by the Baltic sea, the Northern, Atlantic, and the Arctic oceans. It extends from latitude 55° to 71°, its northern extremity being several degrees within the arctic circle. The whole population of this northern region is six millions. It consists of three principal divisions, Sweden, Norway, and Lapland. The army consists of 45,000 men, and the navy of twelve ships of the line, thirteen frigates, and sixty small vessels.

SWEDEN. The foundation of the present constitution of Sweden was laid in 1772, under the reign of Augustus III. The monarchical power is hereditary in the male line, to the exclusion of females. This monarchy is one of the most limited and best defined in Europe. The king appoints to all offices, and has the power of granting pardons, but cannot enact new laws, interpret old ones, raise taxes, or declare war, without the consent of the states. The constitution guarantees to the citizens the rights of persons and property. The liberty of the press is also among the number of the fundamental laws, which cannot be modified without the consent of the states. This body is composed of four orders; 1st. The noblesse, in which every noble family is represented; 2d. The clergy, represented

by the bishops, and by pastors chosen by each chapter; 3d. The burgesses, whose deputies are chosen by the principal towns and cities; and 4th. The peasantry, represented by delegates chosen in their primary assemblies. Each deputy must belong to one of these orders, and profess the protestant religion. The states of Sweden thus composed, have under their management the finances of the nation, making laws, and the regulation of commerce. They are convoked by the king once in five years, and oftener, if in his opinion the exigencies of the state require it.

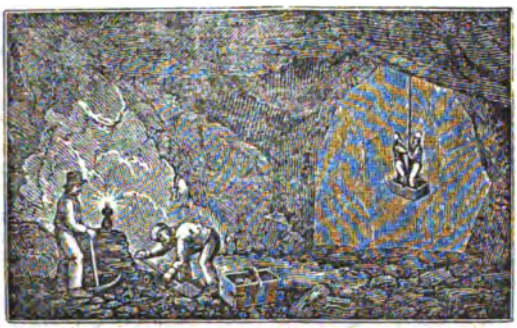
BERNADOTTE. The constitution of Sweden provides that in case of the extinction of the male line of royal blood, the states shall elect a king. In 1810, Charles XIII. the reigning prince, was the only male of the royal blood, and without any expectation of issue. It was not thought expedient to wait until his death should leave the government without a head, before they proceeded to execute this important trust; and at their session in that year, they made choice of Charles John Bernadotte, one of the most distinguished of the French generals under Bonaparte, to be crown prince of Sweden, and successor to the reigning monarch.

Bonaparte assented to this choice, and Bernadotte was cordially received by the reigning prince, and with his consent and that of the states, took possession of the government in 1810, but his succession to the crown did not take place until the demise of the king in 1818. In his view, the best good of Sweden forbade a connection with Bonaparte or the furtherance of his objects. A coldness took place between the emperor and crown prince, which soon ripened into hostility, and Sweden became an important member of the European confederacy against the aggrandizement of France. On the fall of Bonaparte, he received the important accession of Norway, and by his judicious conduct, eventually reconciled the people of Norwayt o the change. Bernadotte was a Frenchman, born at the foot of the Pyrenees, in 1764, and has issue, a son and several grandsons, which afford a promise of perpetuating the succession in his family.

PRODUCTIONS OF SWEDEN. Sweden contains about three fourths of the inhabitants of the Scandinavian peninsula. The evangelical Lutheran religion is the religion of the state, which the monarch, on his accession, is sworn to support. A Swede who abandons it, loses his civil rights. Sweden is a land of mines, and a great portion of its inhabitants are employed in mining.

Before the discovery of America, it was the principal region for the production of silver; and it now produces 1500 tons of copper, and 60,000 tons of iron annually. Stockholm, the capi-

tal of Sweden, stands on three small islands at the outlet of a lake into the Baltic, in latitude 59°, and is said to be the handsomest built city in the north of Europe. It has a population of



Mine in Sweden.

80,000. Gottenburg is the principal commercial town near its southwestern border, and has a population of 24,000. Out of Europe, Sweden possesses the small island of St. Bartholomews, in the West Indies, having 18,000 inhabitants.

NORWAY. Norway is separated from Sweden by a range of mountains, extending nearly the whole length of the two kingdoms. Its coast is washed by the northern Atlantic ocean, and

Hammerfest.

furnishes but few good harbors. Maelstrom, a celebrated whirlpool, fatal to vessels which come within its reach, is on this

coast. Christiana, the capital of Norway, is situated in latitude 60°, and containg 11,000 inhabitants. Bergen, the principal commercial town, is situated on the Atlantic coast, in latitude 60°, and contains a population of 18,000. The principal trade consists in the exchange of lumber, hides, and dried fish of Norway, for grain, and other necessaries, brought by the English, Dutch, and Germans.

Hammerfest is the most northerly town in Europe, and contains less than one hundred inhabitants.

CONSTITUTION. The union of Norway with Sweden, was that of two nations under one head, each retaining its own constitution, laws, and customs. The government of Norway, by the act of union, was declared to be a limited or constitutional monarchy, with some improvements upon its former condition. All orders of nobility were to be abolished after the death of those who then held them. The king was chief magistrate; but no taxes could be imposed, or laws made, without the consent of a general assembly of the kingdom called the Storthing.

This body meets once in three years, in the month of January, but may be oftener convened by the king on extraordinary occasions. It consists of 77 deputies, 26 from the principal towns, and 51 from the country, and forms but one body. Their costume and appearance as a legislature, is thus described by a traveller who attended a meeting of the Storthing, at Christiana, in 1827.

"There were about fifty members present, some of whom came from the interior and unfrequented parts of the country, and surprised us by the patriarchal simplicity of their appearance. They were dressed in the coarse grey woollens of the peasantry, with long hair reaching to their shoulders, and their whole costume reminded one of the fashions of other centuries. They seemed like beings of a different era from ourselves."

These patriarchal legislators often manifest a spirit of independence rarely found in more polished bodies, and which sometimes produces serious difficulties between them and their Swedish rulers; the latter accusing them of an unreasonable, and factious opposition, and they in their turn accusing the government of attempting to innovate on their ancient constitution.

RELIGION. The people of Norway are Lutherans. Their clergy, no less charitable and virtuous than those of other Christian countries, are superor to almost any in information and attention to professional duties. It is among them that the peasantry find well informed teachers, indulgent reprovers, assiduous cemforters, and models of good behavior. The peasantry of Norway do not congregate in towns and villages, as in more mild and hospitable climates, but plant themselves in separate habitations over their rugged country, each one where he can find means of subsistence.

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A village, as it is called in Norway, is often composed of houses scattered over an extent of ten or twelve miles, and forming one parish. The peasantry almost universally attend public worship on Sundays. After service the whole population give themselves up to the amusements of the dance, gymnastic exercises, and games of various descriptions. The people of a parish, living at considerable distances from each other, and necessarily employed through the week in providing subsistence, seldom see each other, or enjoy any recreation except on Sundays. The poeple of Norway are from necessity industrious, frugal, and temperate. These in their turn produce health, contentment and happiness.

LAPLAND. The northern portion of the kingdom of Sweden, together with some territory in the northwest of Russia, is denominated Lapland, not as designating a particular nation or kingdom, but as a region having some peculiarities in its physical character, and in the manners and appearance of its inhabitants. The country under this appellation is bounded on the north by the Arctic ocean; on the east by the White sea and Russia; on the south by other portions of Sweden, and on the west by Norway and the Atlantic ocean.

The North cape, the extreme north point of the continent of Europe, is in latitude 71°. The greatest length of the country under the name of Lapland, is from east to west 700 miles, and breadth 500. The number of inhabitants scattered over this territory, is estimated at 60,000. A considerable portion of this region, lying within the Arctic circle, the longest day in summer is from thirty to sixty hours, and the nights equally long in winter. During these long nights, the darkness is in some measure alleviated by the snow, and a brilliant aurora borealis, insomuch as to afford the inhabitants light sufficient for ordinary purposes.

The highest mountains are 6000 feet, one half of which is above the line of perpetual congelation. The northern regions produce very little for the sustenance of man or beast; and the country would be uninhabitable without the reindeer, an animal which nature seems to have provided for the support and solace of man in this inhospitable region.

CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS The Laplander seems to bear the same relation to the more southern inhabitants of Europe, that the Esquimaux Indian does to the more southern native of America. His height is usually between four and five feet, on an average, one foot less than the common height of the inhabitants of milder climates. He is of dark complexion, with black hair, strong, hardy, and active limbs, and almost insensible to cold.

Laplanders have no characteristic virtues or vices. Little excitement, and a strong attachment to one of the most dreary

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countries on earth, may be considered peculiar to them. With little property they seldom have disputes requiring the intervention of courts. They contrive to settle personal controversies among themselves. Without the means of payment, they are not the subjects of taxation to any extent, and their diminutive size excuses them from military service in the armies of Sweden and Russia. Men and money being the principal objects for which kings desire territory, Lapland is of trifling account to either of those powers, and serves little other purpose than to add square miles to their dominions.

REINDEER. One class of this people are denomicated mountain or reindeer, and the other fishing Laplanders, according to their different places and modes of living. The mountain Laplander has no fixed habitation, but wanders about in quest of food for his reindeer. The people usually lodge in tents or temporary huts. They use a kind of long skates in descending their hills in winter, and with their assistance go down with almost fearful rapidity.

Laplanders descending a hill in winter.

The reindeer subsist on the bark and twigs of trees, and on moss which they obtain by removing the snow. These animals furnish the only mode of transportation, and the principal means of support to their owners. A Laplander's wealth is estimated by the number of his reindeer. The richest have nearly a thousand. The fishing Laplanders have more permanent and comfortable dwellings on the coast, and subsist principally by what they obtain from the water. Some trade is carried on between them and their more southern neighbors, consisting in the exchange of their fish for corn and other necessaries. In this

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description of Lapland, it is to be understood, that there is a gradual diminution of the intelligence and size of the inhabitants, as well as of their comforts and means of subsistence, from latitude 60° to the most northern inhabited region.

RUSSIA. The empire of Russia extends over nearly half of Europe, the whole of northern Asia, and a portion of the northwest coast of America, from latitude 38° to 75° north, and from 19° east longitude easterly to the 130th degree of west longitude, embracing 211° or considerably more than one half the circumference of the earth. It is bounded north by an ocean of ice extending to the north pole, west by Sweden, the Baltic, Prussia, and Austria, south by Turkey, the Black sea, Persia, and China, and east by the British possessions in North America. The southern boundary of the Russian possessions in America, was settled by a convention between Russia and the United States, to be the line of the 55th degree of north latitude. The whole territory of Russia is computed to be 8,000,000 of square miles, equal to one seventh part of the habitable globe; and its population 57,000,000.

The Russian navy consists of thirty-two ships of the line, twenty-five frigates, one hundred small vessels of war, and one hundred and fifty gun boats and floating batteries. The army, at the lowest peace establishment, consists of 650,000 men. In addition to this force, Russia has a military colony system, singular in its character, and calculated greatly to increase her power.

On the termination of the war with Napoleon, the finances and military means of Russia were much exhausted; and the emperor, desirous of increasing his force without further burthening the revenue, determined, on the recommendation of his minister, to quarter a portion of the soldiery on the crown peasants, and to build military villages, allowing to each house a certain portion of land, each soldier composing the colony to become a crown peasant, and each crown peasant a soldier; and both to provide for their own support by cultivating the land assigned them. The whole male population of proper age to be drilled and kept in readiness as a reserve for field duty. A system of laws was framed, adapted to this condition of the colony. The whole military force which it was thought necesary to maintain on the southern frontier of the empire, was constructed on this plan. It not only promoted the population and agriculture of the country, but provided for the support of the families of the soldiers who might be called into actual service, and constituted a standing army without expense to the crown.

In this manner the emperor had in 1824, established a military caste, or a kind of belt, extending along his southern border from the Baltic to the Black sea, constituting in effect, and without expense to the crown, a standing army. In this region all

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males are born soldiers, and at the age of seventeen are placed under the military standard. As soldiers they cease to be boors, and are divided into regiments and companies, and a portion of crown lands set apart for their support. From these lands the soldiers, when not on actual service, must provide for themselves, their families, and their horses. It is estimated that the number of these agricultural soldiers, when the system is completed, will amount to 3,000,000, one half of which can be called into immediate service, constituting in effect a permanent standing army of 1,500,000 men. From this detail of the military system of Russia. the friends of liberal principles in Europe, when they see it in the hands of a despot, the head of the holy alliance, determined to suppress in every nation any attempts of the people to ameliorate their condition, may learn the difficulties to be encountered in the progress of civil liberty.

DIFFERENT GRADES OF INHABITANTS. The inhabitants of Russia, as to their political condition, exclusive of the army and agricultural soldiery, are divided into three classes or orders. The lowest, and by far the most numerous, are the boors or peasants, amounting to 30,000,000. Though not precisely in the condition of the African slave, their situation is not much better. They are considered as the property of the crown, or individual landholders. The lowest grade are transferable with the soil, and though not compelled to constant daily labor for their masters, the latter take their earnings and require their services at pleasure. The next grade are citizens, not nobles nor clergymen, enjoying generally the same privileges as persons of that description in other despotic countries; with the exception of paying to the government whatever the emperor requires, they are allowed to enjoy the fruits of their own earnings. The highest grade of subjects are the nobles, of which there are about 150,000 families, enjoying some undefined privileges and exemptions.

GOVERNMENT. The government is an absolute hereditary monarchy. It has nothing in the shape of a charter, constitution, or states general, but is conducted by a council of empire, ministers and a senate, there being no representative body. Catharine II. in the early part of her reign, about the year 1770, called together a deputation from all parts of the empire, forming a states general or representative body, with a view, as she expressed it, of establishing a wholesome code of laws for her whole kingdom. They assembled at Moscow, and the empress opened the session in person, by communicating to them her wishes. After keeping them together a sufficient length of time to ascertain that no good could result from the confused deliberations of such an assembly, she dismissed them; since which, no attempts have been made to form a Russian constitu-

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tion; it being ascertained, that if such an extensive and diversified empire is held together, it must be by a despotic power. Russia has ever been governed by ukases, or sovereign edicts, made by the emperor alone, and executed by his ministers.

Punishments, especially for political offences, are severe in the extreme. A common one is that of the knout, by which death is inflicted in the most tragical manner. Another, almost equally dreaded, is banishment to the inhospitable regions of Siberia.

The inhabitants of this extensive empire, are as diversified in their manners and character, as is their climate and soil. Every grade of civilization is to be found, from the Esquimaux Indian, to the polished inhabitant of Moscow and Petersburg. Beginning at the northeast, Russian America is inhabited by the Esquimaux, the lowest, most ignorant, diminutive and degraded of American savages. The whole northern region of Asiatic and European Russia, to the extent of 2000 miles in length, and 300 in breadth, is inhabited by Samoides, of the same stature, features, character and manner of life, with the Laplanders of Europe. Next in grade are the Nomade Tartars, dwelling in tents and temporary huts, wandering over a considerable extent of country, where they can find subsistence for their flocks. Their occupation consists in tending their cattle, and their living depends upon them. A grade above these are the stationary tribes of Tartars, who dwell in permanent habitations, and subsist in part by agriculture. The whole Tartar population of Russia is estimated at 3,000,000, over which the government exercises but a partial control, and draws but little revenue.

Cossacks. Next in grade of civilization are the Cossacks, a military colony, inhabiting the southern and eastern frontier of European Russia, in the region of the Black sea, and the river Don. Doing the duty of soldiers in guarding the frontier, they are not required to pay taxes in money to the government. The whole number of fighting men of this class, is estimated at 700,000; but not more than half that number are in actual service, and two thirds of these are employed as guards within their own territory; so that not more than 100,000 Cossacks can be counted upon for a foreign war. Each Cossack is liable to do military duty from the age of 18 to 50, and to furnish his own horse and armor. They form the irregular flying cavalry of a Russian army.

The next grade of inhabitants are those of European Russia, of the middle and higher classes, of the same state of civilization, manners and intelligence, with other inhabitants of Europe.

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PETER I. Previous to the commencement of the eighteenth century, Russia was a semi-barbarous power, of little consideration in the general system of European politics. In the course of a century she has become in a great measure, the arbitress of Europe. This has been effected principally by two sovereigns, Peter I. and Catharine II. Peter was born May 30th, 1672, and in June, 1682, was crowned emperor, in conjunction with Ivan, an older brother, who from weakness of intellect, took no part in the administration of affairs.

Peter seems to have inherited all the enterprise and talent belonging to his family. In April, 1697, he set out on his celebrated tour; not in the capacity of an emperor, but as an attachee of an embassy; which, according to an old Russian custom was to visit the principal courts of Europe. At Amsterdam, he worked incognito in a Dutch ship yard; from thence he went to the village of Sardam, and assuming the dress of his own countrymen, he engaged as a workman under the assumed name of Peter Michaloff. From thence he returned to Amsterdam, and both superintended and labored in the building of a sixty gun ship, which he sent to Archangel. From Amsterdam he went to London, and took a residence near the royal ship yard, often declaring that if he were not czar of Russia he would be an English admiral. He engaged at London upwards of 500 persons to go with him to Russia. He returned to Moscow, September 4th, 1698, having spent seventeen months in this extraordinary tour.

The city of Moscow being in the interior, was not suited to his views, as the capital of the empire. He thereupon built the city of Petersburg, at which he established his court. From the time of his return to that of his death in 1725, he was sedulously employed in improving the knowledge he had obtained in his tour, to the benefit of his subjects, and the aggrandizement of his empire.

CATHARINE II. The next distinguished occupant of the Russian throne, was Catharine II. born in 1729, married in 1745, to Peter, heir apparent to the crown, and who became emperor in fact in 1761, and was deposed, imprisoned, and assassinated in 1762, when the crown was placed on the head of his widow, under the title of Catharine II. Her reign, for a period of thirty-four years, from 1762 to 1796, exhibited a continued effort to improve the condition of her subjects, to enlarge her authority, and extend her territory, without any regard to the justice of the measures adopted to accomplish the object, giving the fullest extent to the maxim, that "the end justifies the means." Under the operation of the plans adopted in the reigns of Peter I. and Catharine II., Russia rapidly rose to the rank of a first rate European power.

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ALEXANDER. Catharine died in 1796, and was succeeded by her son Paul, born in 1754. His short reign of five years was distinguished for nothing but folly and weakness. In March, 1801, he was assassinated in his bed chamber, by his minister, and Alexander, his son, declared emperor. He was born December 23d, 1777, and the first four years of his reign was peaceful and prosperous. He employed himself in carrying into execution the plans of Peter I. and Catharine II. relating to the internal administration, and the improvement of the condition of his subjects. He first sought the friendship of Bonaparte, on the ground that by their united councils they could govern Europe, but soon found that his friendship, or even peace with him, was not to be obtained except by sacrifices disgraceful and injurious to Russia. The two emperors became enemies, and from 1805 to 1814, Alexander had full employment in resisting the arts and arms of Bonaparte.

On the fall of the emperor of France, Russia became the arbitress of continental Europe. As the head of the holy alliance, Alexander associated the principal powers of Europe with him in a league, the object of which was, to put down by force every appearance of liberal or revolutionary principles in any nation.

In the period of peace which succeeded the fall of the French emperor, Alexander steadily pursued the object of extending the bounds and the influence of Russia. He died suddenly at Taganrock, on the Black Sea, December 1st, 1825, at the age of forty-eight, and was succeeded by his second brother, Nicholas. So completely despotic is the government of Russia, that the reigning prince is admitted to have the power of disposing of the empire to a successor, on the same principles as the owner of a private estate.

Alexander left no children, but had three brothers, Constantine, Nicholas, and Michael. Alexander had discovered in Constantine, his elder brother, a want of that firmness, energy, and enterprise, which he believed requisite to carry into effect his plans, and which he supposed Nicholas to possess. He obliged Constantine to sign an instrument, by which he renounced his right to the succession in favor of Nicholas, and left this paper sealed up in another called his will, in which he appointed Nicholas his successor. On the news of Alexander's death, both brothers were proclaimed emperors by different parties. Constantine soon yielded his pretensions to Nicholas, who appears to be pursuing the plans of his brother, as well for the internal improvement, as for the aggrandizement of the empire.

Nicholas I. was born, July, 1796, and has six children. Alexander, his eldest son, and heir apparent, was born in 1818.

The public debt of Russia, at the acccession of the present emperor, was $170,000,000, and the annual revenue, $55,000,000.

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RELIGION. The state religion of Russia is that of the Greek Church, with a full toleration of all others. All Christian sects enjoy equal privileges. That portion of Christians who conform in their creed, discipline, and usages, to the views of Christianity, as first introduced into the Greek empire, and afterwards reduced to a system by the patriarchs of Constantinople, is denominated the Greek Church, and constitutes the prevailing Christian sect in Russia, Greece, and the countries to the east of them. Its members are estimated at 50,000,000. This church recognizes two sources of divine authority, the Bible and tradition. Under the latter, it comprehends the doctrines supposed to have been orally delivered by the apostles, but not contained in the New Testament, and also such as have been approved by the fathers of the Greek Church, and the first seven acknowledged general councils.

Its authorities not only allow, but require their priests to marry, as a requisite previous to their ordination; and if a clergyman looses his wife, he is not allowed to marry again, or to continue his functions, but loses his living, and must retire to a cloister.

They reject the doctrines of purgatory, predestination, and works of supererogation, but admit the power of pardoning sins, and have printed forms of absolution, which they put into the hands of a deceased person, at the request of his friends, immediately on his death.

They are zealous in their invocation of saints, especially of the virgin Mary, and hold relics, graves, and crosses sacred. Crossing themselves in the name of Jesus, they consider as having a blessed influence.

They believe in penance, especially of fasting, as a means of purifying the soul and obtaining forgiveness. They fast on Wednesday and Friday of each week, and observe four great annual fastings, occupying in the whole, one half the year in which they abstain from meat.

They do not recognize the pope or any one else as infallible, or as the vicar of Christ on earth. They allow no sculptured or carved images, but admit of paintings in their churches.

EDUCATION. Education and literature are of modern date in Russia, and chiefly confined to the European part of the empire. The reigning emperor and his immediate predecessor have done much to improve the condition of Russia in these respects. There are at present fifteen different languages spoken within the empire, and of every grade of improvement. There are now eleven well endowed universities with 6570 students. The whole number of primary and intermediate schools at the last enumeration, was 1411, with 70,000 scholars, together with 344 schools maintained by the clergy of the Greek church, for the lower classes of their parishioners, with 45,000 pupils. At the

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commencement of the eighteenth century, there were but two printing presses in Russia; in 1830 there were upwards of sixty. The Petersburg Bible society was established by Alexander, in 1818, and has thirty auxiliaries. It has printed and distributed the Bible in thirty different languages, and is still extending its influence and operations.

PETERSBURG. Petersburg, the capital of the Russian empire, is situated near the mouth of the Neva, at the eastern extremity of the gulf of Finland, latitude 60° north, 480 miles northwest of Moscow. It contains a population of 450,000. A singular feature in this population is, that about one quarter only are females. Petersburg is the royal residence and the seat of the court; and in beauty and splendor is said to surpass any city in Europe.

The city is of modern date. It was founded by the first emperor whose name it bears, in 1703, when he built a fort on an island in the Neva, as a defence against the Swedes, and a small hut on the opposite bank for his own residence, while superintending the building of his city. The hut is still standing, enclosed by a stone building for its preservation.

St. Petersburg.

Petersburg not answering the purpose of a port and naval station for his fleet, the emperor, in 1710, built Cronstadt, on an island in the gulf of Finland, twenty miles west of Petersburg. The harbor is spacious, and consists of three divisions, the merchants' harbor, the war harbor, and the mole. Cronstadt is the principal naval station and commercial depot of Russia on the Baltic; its population is 40,000; 10,000 of whom are sailors. Eleven hundred vessels enter and leave the port annually.

MOSCOW. Moscow, the ancient capital of the empire, is situated near the centre of European Russia, in latitude 56°. In

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1812 it contained 250,000 inhabitants. The events of September in that year, has rendered this city memorable in history. After the sanguinary battle of Borodino, in which 100,000 men were slain, being about an equal number of French and Russians, it was determined that the city must be yielded to Bonaparte. It was the same time determined to render it a fruitless conquest.

Moscow was to be sacrificed to save the empire. The public treasure and stores were immediately removed, and the greater part of the inhabitants left the city with such of their effects as they could find the means of transporting. The Russian army retired to Kaluga, 100 miles to the southwest of Moscow. The governor of the city, count Rotopschin, caused the removal of the fire department, consisting of 2000 firemen, and 100 engines, and also the civil and military city authorities.

Napoleon arrived before the city on the 13th of September, and waited until the 14th, in expectation that the keys would be presented to him, accompanied with an invitation to take possession. At length, twelve persons of mean appearance, and of the lower order, appeared before him, representing themselves to be a deputation from the city, and gave him the required invitation. His advanced guard entered on the 14th, and on the 15th, Napoleon entered himself, and took possession of the Kremlin. Volleys of smoke were soon observed to rise from a distance, and flames appeared in all parts of the city. Attempts to extinguish them were fruitless; the engines had been removed, and all Moscow was on fire.

Finding it impossible to subdue the conflagration, Napoleon with his suite left the Kremlin, and retired three miles from the city. His orders were, "where you cannot extinguish, plunder." On the first night after the French took possession of the city, the large ware-houses in the neighborhood of the Kremlin were burned. Napoleon's permission to plunder prevented his soldiers from making any exertion to extinguish the flames. On the fifth day of the conflagration, a high wind carried the fire in every direction. No further attempts were made to arrest its progress; Moscow continued burning until the 21st.

Eight thousand dwelling houses, being four fifths of the whole city, were destroyed. An estimate taken with a view to an indemnification of the loss sustained by Moscow and its environs by this conflagration, fixes it at $240,000,000. Compensation was made in part by the Russian government, and by contributions in other parts of Europe. It was considered as a sacrifice to prevent Bonaparte from getting the command of the whole continent. It had the intended effect. Of the 150,000 French troops who entered Moscow, under the command of Bonaparte, he lost in the course of five weeks, by death and desertion, 40,000.

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He repeatedly sought to make terms with Alexander, but was as often answered, that the emperor of Russia would hold no intercourse with an enemy in his dominions. Napoleon found himself in a desolated and famished country, without the means of subsistence, at the approach of a long Russian winter. Every thing which could contribute to his support, within the reach of his arms, was removed or destroyed.

A retreat commenced on the 22d of October, attended with disaster at every step. Only 20,000 men, the miserable remnant of the largest and best appointed army which modern Europe ever saw, reached France. In the course of ten years, Moscow was rebuilt upon an enlarged and improved plan, and now contains 250,000 inhabitants.

ARCHANGEL. Archangel is a considerable port on the Dwina, twenty miles from its entrance into the White sea, in latitude 65°. It is accessible from the Atlantic, only by doubling the North cape. Previous to the building of Petersburg and Cronstadt, it was the only place of export for the productions of Russia to the maratime States of Europe.

ODESSA. Odessa is the principal Russian port on the Black sea, and is in latitude 46°. In 1792, Catharine II. fixed on this place as a commercial emporium for that part of her dominions. It then contained but few indifferent houses, and was scarcely known. It has a good harbor, with a sufficient depth of water for the largest ships, and has become a place of extensive commerce. Six hundred ships enter its port annually, and its population amounts to 40,000. One third of its commerce is carried on by the English.

The Black sea is situated between Europe and Asia, and with the sea or bay of St. Asaph, contains an area of 300,000 square miles. It communicates with the Mediterranean through the Bosphorus, a narrow strait between the Turkish dominions in Europe and Asia. Its navigation is therefore dependant upon that power, as the straits cannot be passed without sailing under the guns of Constantinople. It presents between the two powers, the much agitated question of the right of navigation, between the upper and lower proprietors on navigable water. Force has been the only arbiter of this question between them. While Turkey was the strongest power, and able to maintain her claim, the trade of the Black sea was restricted; since Russia has gained the ascendency, it has been opened.

ASTRACAN. Astracan is the principal city of Asiatic Russia. It stands on an island in the Volga, thirty-four miles from its mouth, in the Caspian sea, and in latitude 46°. It is the principal emporium of commerce for that region, and contains 30,000 inhabitants. Sixty vessels visit the port annually. This great inland lake, called by the inhabitants of the east the Cas-

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pian sea, is six hundred and fifty miles long, from north to south; its breadth varies from one hundred to two hundred and sixty miles, being something less than the American lake Superior. Several large rivers flow into it, but it has no visible outlet. Being in a high northern latitude, evaporation can scarcely be supposed sufficient to carry off its surplus waters; how they are expended, or what becomes of them, has been a subject of much philosophical conjecture.

Tobolski. Tobolski is the capital of Siberia, the eastern section of Asiatic Russia. It is situated in latitude 58° north, twelve hundred miles east of St. Petersburg, and has a population of 25,000, most of them exiles or their descendants. Its name strikes a dread upon political offenders, as designating the place to which the Russian government sends those whom it fears, or who have been convicted of political crimes.

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CHAPTER VII.

Poland. Its government before the dismemberment. Extent. Elective monarchy. Mode of electing a king. Diet. Partition of 1772; *of* 1792. *Extinction of the nation of Poland. Condition of the country under Napoleon, and as regulated by the Congress of Vienna. Viceroyalty of Constantine. Insurrection of* 1830. *Its result. Warsaw. Kosciusko. Pulaski. Cracow. Prussia. Its extent; population; military force; religion; education; government. Constitution, or charter granted by the king. Character of the reigning monarch. Frederick William III. Frederick William IV. Steuben. Anecdotes concerning. Turkey. Its extent; population; recent diminution; governor. Grand Seignior. His seraglio. Character, condition, and treatment of women in Turkey. General character of the Turks. Princes of the blood. Mahmoud II. The reigning Sultan. Proceedings against the Greeks. Rebellion of* 1822. *Janizaries. Their origin, power, and dissolution. Mahomet. Mahometan religion. Koran; its principal tenets, doctrines, and duties enjoined by it. Its paradise. Principal cities. Constantinople: its baths and public buildings. Bursa. Greece. Ancient government. Conquered by the Turks. Condition under Turkey. Revolution of* 1821. *Meeting of the first Congress. Massacre of the Greek clergy. Destruction of Scio. Conduct of the Holy Alliance. Sympathies excited by their condition. Lord Byron's exertions. His death. Cause of Greece in the United States. Frigates built for them at New York. Interference of Great Britain, France, and Russia. Their terms of pacification. Battle of Navarino. Terms accepted. Choice of a sovereign. Athens. General view of Europe; how it affects the United States.*

POLAND. The kingdom of Poland, though now effaced from the map of nations, forms an interesting article in a view of the present condition of Europe. Poland, as it existed before its first dismemberment in 1772, extended from the foot of the Carpathian mountains, and the fertile plains of the Ukraine, in latitude 47°, to the shores of the Baltic, in latitude 56°, and over an extent of 17° of longitude, from 15° to 32° east, comprising 284,000 square miles, and 12,000,000 inhabitants. The country, principally a plain, as its name denotes, is called the granary of Europe, yielding an abundant supply for its less fertile portions. Its principal mineral is salt, of which it produces great quantities for the neighboring countries.

GOVERNMENT. Poland, like the west of Europe, was originally a feudal hereditary monarchy, and occupied an important station

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in its general concerns. In 1752, in consequence of the extinguishment of the reigning dynasty, it became elective, the king being chosen by a diet, or assembly of the States, and without annexing to it the hereditary quality. The electing diet consisted of an assemblage of nobility and clergy, without any definite rules for designating the right of membership; always, however, excluding the commons, they not being then deemed of sufficient consequence to be entitled to a representation. In the condition in which Europe was in the 16th century, as to morals, religion, and political information, this was the worst species of government that could have been devised. Each noble attended the diet of election with as great an armed retinue as he could raise. Each had his favorite candidate, and after a scene of turbulence, generally attended with bloodshed, the successful candidate usually owed his elevation to the interference of some foreign power. The elected king was subservient to the views of that power by whose influence he was chosen, bountiful to those by whose votes he had nominally been elevated, and vindictive to his enemies. During the two centuries which the government of Poland existed under this form, its history presents a uniform subserviency to the views of some one or other of its neighbors, in no wise superior to itself, except in the hereditary quality of its government; and at the same time, an almost constant series of domestic unquietness.

DIET. The Polish diet was also for some purposes a legislative body, forming but one chamber. A singular feature in the constitution of this body was what was called the *liberum veto*, by which any one member could negative its proceedings. A measure ever so beneficial and desirable to a great majority, could be defeated by one or a small number, unless force was used to compel a unanimity. This was not unfrequently done, producing scenes of confusion, and sometimes bloodshed.

The Polish government continued in this disjointed condition until the elevation of Catharine II. to the throne of Russia in 1762. An election to the crown of Poland being then about to take place, a Swede by the name of Periatrowski, was sent to the court of Petersburg to intrigue for a particular candidate. The ambassador, young, handsome, and accomplished, succeeded in gaining the affections of Catharine, and abandoning the interests of his employer, he enlisted the empress, with all her zeal and power, in his own favor. In 1764, he was placed on the throne of Poland by the aid of Russian bayonets. Too weak to check the rebellious pride of the Polish nobility, he wavered between seeking Russian protection, and maintaining the dignity of an independent nation, and in the event, lost the respect and confidence of all. The fanaticism with which the bishops of Cracow and Wilna opposed the restoration of religious freedom, was the immediate cause of a civil war, which plunged Poland into the wildest disorder, and accelerated its final ruin.

Russia embraced the cause of the dissenters, or dissidents as they were called. A general diet or confederation was assembled, but this body was under the influence of Russia. Foreign troops laid waste the country, while the lawless conduct of some of the Polish chiefs increased the disorder. This condition of Poland furnished an excuse for the interference of the neighboring powers; and in 1772, the dismemberment of Poland was concerted between Russia, Austria, and Prussia. In September, 1773, this partition was ratified by the diet of Poland. In 1791, the remnant of this nation formed a constitution by which the elective monarchy was abolished, and the third estate, or the people were admitted to a share in the government by representation. This proceeding was disapproved by Russia and Prussia, and a second partition was made by those powers, embracing about one half the remainder. This brought on a rising of the Poles, of which Kosciusko was the head. After some partial successes, the Poles and their brave general were overwhelmed by Russian, Prussian, and Austrian armies; the remainder of Poland was partitioned between the three powers, and the nation ceased to exist.

Poland remained in this condition until 1807, when Napoleon formed a large portion of the provinces formerly constituting the nation, into the duchy of Warsaw, and gave them a French code and constitution, and a ruler in the person of the king of Saxony. Under the name of donations, Napoleon took from his Polish subjects large portions of land, and bestowed them on his officers. He also obliged his new kingdom to adopt his continental system, and aid in fighting his battles, so that the Poles, though nominally restored to the condition of a nation, found themselves pillaged, and their trade annihilated by their new master.

In 1814, the country returned in a great measure to its former condition under its first conquerors, and became a subject of arrangement with the congress of Vienna. The city of Cracow, with an adjacent territory of about 500 square miles, and 100,000 inhabitants, was to be governed by its own laws as an independent republic. The greater part of the territory which Austria and Prussia had previously seized, was confirmed to them, and all the remainder was united to the Russian empire, retaining the name of the kingdom of Poland, and a separate administration. The emperor Alexander assumed the title of czar and king of Poland, was crowned, and received the homage of his new subjects at Warsaw. The inhabitants of Poland thus divided into four sections, retained their name, language, manners, and national attachments.

In 1815, Alexander gave his Polish subjects a charter or constitution, consisting of 165 articles, which if fairly construed and faithfully executed, might have promoted their welfare. It pro-

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vided that the government of the country should be vested in a native Polander, unless one of the imperial princes should be appointed viceroy. This article was deceptive, and rendered nugatory by its condition. The vice-royalty was given to Constantine, the brother of Alexander, noted for nothing but his tyranny and incompetence to govern. Equality of religious sects, personal security, liberty of the press, and the entire possession of all employments, civil and military, by native Poles, were among the salutary provisions of the charter. These rights were to be secured by regular meetings of the national diet, to consist of two chambers, a nobility, and a representation of the people.

The first diet under the constitution of 1815, assembled in 1818. The liberty of the press was abolished in 1819. A second diet was held in 1820. But these assemblies soon became useless pageants, or the corrupt instruments of arbitrary power. The members who dared express opinions unpalatable to the viceroy, were banished to their estates, and compelled to pay Russian soldiers for attending them home, and watching them. The diet were compelled to grant such supplies as the government demanded.

In 1825, an ordinance was issued forbidding publicity of debate. The resources of Poland were expended in support of Russian armies stationed among the inhabitants. Extortion in every form was practised, under the direction of the viceroy, by the governors of the provinces. State prisoners, comprehending all who had rendered themselves obnoxious to the government, were sent into Russia, and confined without trial. Respectable citizens were flogged, or compelled to work on the public ways without any specific charges against them.

Soon after the accession of Nicholas, a conspiracy broke out in Russia in favor of Constantine, and on pretence that it extended to Poland, several hundred persons were arrested, and a commission instituted to inquire into the matter, contrary to the provisions of the charter. No discoveries were made by this inquisition, except that secret societies for political purposes had existed in Poland from 1821. These were abolished. In 1828, another society was instituted for the purpose of gaining over the officers of the Polish army to the cause of independence. To the agency of this society, the insurrection of 1830 is attributed.

Nicholas was crowned as king of Poland, at Warsaw, in 1829. About the same time, for the purpose of kidnapping the Polish patriots, a sham conspiracy against the Russian government was got up by their own police at Warsaw, who having by these means induced a number of young men to betray themselves, threw them into prison. Not only the Polish officers, the youth of the military school, and the students of the university, but

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the greater part of the citizens and chief nobles were gained over to the cause of the independence of Poland, and joined in an effort to prevent a project which the viceroy was about to adopt, of removing all the Polish troops to the south of Europe, and introducing the Russians in their places. Such was the state of feeling at Warsaw, when the insurrection of the 29th of November, 1830, broke out.

A young Polish officer entered the military school on the evening of that day, and invited the cadets to arms. They immediately proceeded to Belvidere, the viceroy's residence, two miles from the city, in the hope of seizing his person, and were joined on the way by the students of the university. They forced themselves into the palace, but Constantine was concealed in a closet by a servant until he could make his escape by a secret door. Another party of cadets and students paraded the streets, calling the people to arms, and were joined by the Polish troops in the city. The arsenal, with 40,000 stands of arms was seized, and the insurrection became general.

On the next morning, 40,000 men were in arms in Warsaw, and every Russian driven from the city. An administrative council was summoned to preserve order, and to give influence and character to the proceeding. Several distinguished Poles, not belonging to the city, were invited to attend, and measures taken for the organization of a national guard, a new police, and a municipal government.

On the 3d of December, Constantine left the neighborhood of Warsaw, with five Russian regiments, and the Polish general, Clopicki, was proclaimed dictator until a meeting of the diet.

On the 17th of December, the emperor Nicholas issued a proclamation declaring that no concession should be made to the rebels; and on the 24th, another addressed to the Russians, telling them that the Poles had dared to propose conditions to their legitimate monarch, and adding, "God is with us, and in a single battle we shall be able to reduce to submission these disturbers of the peace."

A Polish diet met on the 18th of December, and on the 24th of January, declared the termination of the Russian government, and the absolute independence of Poland, and that the throne was vacant.

During the spring and summer of 1831, the Poles fought several battles at great disadvantage as to numbers, but always with success when the armies approached to an equality. They were fighting for their families, firesides, and for their liberty; the Russians, in the capacity of mercenaries, for the purpose of subduing the Poles only to render their own chains the stronger. The odds, in every point of view, was fearful; the whole power of Russia, with its half a million of fighting men, aided by Austria and Prussia, against a handful of patriot Poles. After two days hard fighting, the city of Warsaw capitulated on the 7th of

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September, 1831, and on the 8th, the Russians took possession. The revolution terminated in the entire and unconditional submission of Poland, within less than ten months from its commencement.

The cause of Poland excited the sympathies of the people of Europe and America, but no interference was attempted by any nation in their behalf. Prussia and Austria having participated in the dismemberment of Poland, was interested on the side of Russia. A Polish corps of 5000 men having fled into Austria, were arrested and sent back as prisoners of war. France and England were too much occupied with their own affairs to engage in a war with Russia. The doctrine of non-intervention, adopted only when it suits the convenience of nations, was now strenuously insisted upon by Russia, and acquiesced in by the other powers. The Poles were left to their fate, and suffered a most severe and exterminating proscription.

The Polish exiles in various nations have received liberal contributions from private charity. Their sufferings and their representations excited a high feeling of indignation against their oppressors.

Warsaw, the capital of Poland, and the seat of this unfortunate struggle for independence, is situated on the left bank of the Vistula, in latitude 52° north. Previous to the commencement of the revolution it contained a population of 140,000; the events of that period reduced it more than one half. One of the first acts of the Russian government after the murder, proscription, and banishment of the patriot Poles, was to build a citadel in this city, at an expense of $8,000,000, levied upon those who were suffered to remain, serving at once for a monument of their subjugation, and the means of suppressing future risings. It is garrisoned by a strong body of Russian troops, also at the expense of Poland.

Kosciusko. Two of the four European officers who acted a distinguished part in the American revolution, were from Poland. The services and sacrifices of Lafayette are engraven on the memories and hearts of Americans. Those of Kosciusko, Pulaski and Steuben, are less known. Kosciusko was born in 1756, and educated in the military school of Warsaw, and early distinguished himself as an officer in the army of Poland. From some domestic circumstances, he was obliged to leave his native country, at an early period of the American revolution. He came to America and joined the army of General Washington. His military prowess was particularly called into action at the memorable siege of Ninety Six. He received the rank of major general, and a pension from Congress. He returned to Poland in 1786, and took an active part in every thing which concerned the liberty and welfare of his country, until a signal defeat in a battle with the Russians, October 10, 1794, when he fell from

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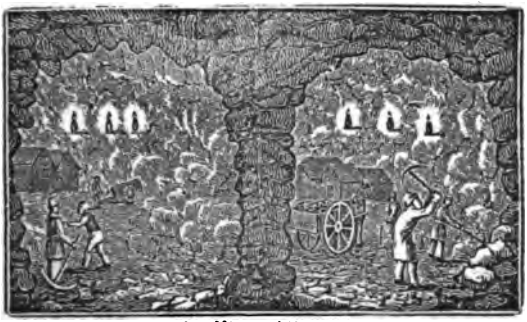
his horse covered with wounds, and was made prisoner, exclaiming, "there is an end of Poland." Catharine treated him not as a prisoner of war, but as a state offender, and confined him during her life. One of the few commendable acts of her successor, Paul I., was to liberate Kosciusko, and present him with a sword; the latter he refused, saying, "I have no need of a sword, since I have no longer a country." He visited the United States in 1797, and was treated with every mark of becoming attention, though not with the same enthusiastic ardor as Lafayette.

From America, he went to France the next year, and lived in retirement in that country and Switzerland, employing himself in agriculture, until his death in 1817. Frequent attempts were made by Napoleon to engage him in his service, flattering him with promises that he would make Poland a nation, and place him at its head. "Restore Poland to its ancient condition, and give it a free constitution, and I will devote myself to its service," was the reply.

PULASKI. Count Pulaski was also a distinguished officer in the American service, from Poland. He had been condemned to death in his native country, for revolutionary movements, and saved himself by flight. He arrived in America at an early period of the war, was appointed brigadier general, and distinguished himself on various occasions, until he was slain in the attack on Charleston, in October, 1779.



Salt Mines of Cracow.

CRACOW. In 1815 the city of Cracow with a surrounding territory of 500 square miles, and 108,000 inhabitants, was declared a republic by the congress of Vienna, under a constitution sanctioned by Austria, Russia and Prussia. The representatives are chosen by the corporations, the executive power is held by twelve senators, eight of whom are for life, and four for a limited period.

In the republic of Cracow are the most celebrated salt mines

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in the world, they are in the town of Weiliczka near the city of Cracow, they were worked in the thirteenth century, and the supply still seems inexhaustible. They descend to the depth of fifteen hundred feet. The salt is cut out in long narrow blocks and then broken up and packed in barrels. Seventy millions pounds are annually raised.

PRUSSIA. The Prussian monarchy, as it now exists, consists of two detached sections. The eastern, which is much the largest, borders on the Baltic on the north, Russia on the east, Austria and Saxony on the south, and on the west it is separated from the western division, by the German principalities of Hesse, Hanover and Brunswick, and includes that part of Poland which was assigned to Prussia, on the breaking up of that kingdom. The western section embraces the German dominions of Prussia, bordering on France and the Netherlands. Both parts comprehend a territory of upwards of 100,000 square miles, and 15,000,000 inhabitants. It presents a frontier of 700 miles in extent, bordering on warlike neighbors, and renders a large standing army at all times necessary. Its military force consists of 160,000 regular troops, and 360,000 militia, organized in such a manner as to be capable of being called into immediate service. In addition to this, is what is termed on the continent of Europe, the levy en masse, embracing every citizen capable of bearing arms, from eighteen to sixty years of age, comprising one third of the male population, and in Prussia amounting to 2,000,000. The annual expenses of the army, on its lowest peace establishment, is 16,000,000 of dollars, averaging $95 a man, including officers, and embracing every military expenditure.

LITERATURE. The inhabitants of Prussia are two thirds protestants, and the remainder catholics, except about 150,000 Jews. Great attention has been paid to education. Frederick II., the great founder of the Prussian monarchy, was not only a patron of learning and learned men, but was himself an author of considerable distinction. Prussia has seven universities, at which there are usually about 6,000 students. Common schools were encouraged by Frederick, and are now widely diffused and patronized.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Prussia is an absolute monarchy; and has continued unrestricted by any semblance of a constitution, or of a legislative body, until 1823. So much had been said in France and some other parts of Europe, on the subject of a constitutional monarchy, and of admitting the people to some share in the government, that the congress of Vienna, in their endeavors to restore and preserve the ancient order of things in Europe, deemed it necessary to recommend to the German princes, and to the king of Prussia, to grant to their subjects respectively, charters or constitutions, having the ap-

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pearance at least, of giving to the people a share in the management of their political concerns. In 1815, the king of Prussia promised his subjects a constitution, agreeable to this order. His promise lay dormant until 1823, when he called together a body which he denominated the provincial estates of his kingdom. It consisted of the nobility, in person, and the citizens and peasants, by representation. They had a right, when assembled, to give their opinion, if required, on subjects relating to the government. On the subject of granting money, and of taxation, or the mode of levying it, their opinion was always to be required, but neither on this subject or any other, was it to be conclusive. This farce was claimed to be a compliance with the promise of 1815, and may be considered as a sample of the kind of constitutions which the people are to expect from the free grace of their sovereigns.

FREDERICK WILLIAM III. Frederick William III., the father of the present reigning prince, was born August 3d, 1770. and succeeded to the throne in November, 1797. So many abuses had crept into the government during the short and weak reign of his father, that all eyes were turned to him for relief. His administration commenced with a reform of many of these abuses. He revoked an intolerant religious edict, abolished the censorship of the press, and the monopoly of tobacco; and reformed the administration of justice, placing it on the footing on which it was left by Frederick the Great. He introduced the custom of stating the motives on which the royal edicts were passed, reformed his father's prodigalities, and gave encouragement to education and domestic industry. He lived strictly a life of domestic virtue, his character and taste better fitted for a private station, than that of a sovereign, in a period of great political excitement. He died in 1840, and his son, Frederick William IV. is now the reigning monarch.

After many inconsistent steps, Prussia determened to maintain a strict neutrality in the wars of France. This, in the state of Europe at that period, was impossible. Bonaparte had declared there should be no neutrals. A war with France ensued and was terminated in a single battle, that of Jena, in October, 1806. By the peace of Tilsit, which followed in 1807, Prussia lost half her dominions, and was compelled to maintain a French army of 150,000 men, and pay the expenses of her conquest. She was, from that period, until 1813, in effect, a conquered province of France.

On the fall of Bonaparte, and the restoration of the ancient order of things in Europe, Prussia regained her possessions, and her rank as the fifth great power which controls its destinies; Russia being considered the first, Great Britain the second, Austria the third, and France the fourth. Though Prussia borders upwards of five hundred miles on the Baltic, and has

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several good harbors, it has no navy, and its mercantile marine is small, its foreign trade being carried on principally by the merchants of other nations. Berlin, its capital, is pleasantly situated on the navigable waters of the Spree, in latitude 53°, and has 200,000 inhabitants.

Berlin.

It was for a considerable time in the possession of Bonaparte, and occupied as his head quarters in the north; from whence he issued his edicts, prohibiting all trade with Great Britain.

Frederick William Baron Steuben, a distinguished officer in the American army of the revolution, was a native Prussian, born in 1730. He had been aid de camp to Frederick the great, and attained the rank of major general in his army. Sacrificing his honors and emoluments in Europe, he came to America in 1777, and offered his services to congress as a volunteer, without claiming any rank or compensation. His offers were gladly accepted, and he was soon appointed inspector general, with the rank of major general in the line. His services as inspector were of the utmost importance, in the existing condition of the army, and were afforded with the utmost zeal and a continued exertion. Nothing satisfied him until he brought the army to a state of discipline and order that would well compare with European tactics. It had been usual in the estimates of the war department, for congress to allow 500 muskets extra, for waste and destruction; but such was the exact order under his inspection, that in his return, but three muskets were missing, and those were accounted for.

Baron Steuben was the commanding officer in the trenches before Yorktown, when the first proposition from lord Cornwallis to surrender was received. General Washington, not knowing the circumstance, sent Lafayette to relieve him. According to European etiquette, it was his right to remain in command until

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the capitulation was completed, or hostilities renewed. Steuben refused to give up the command. The subject being referred to general Washington, he was continued until the surrender was completed. After the capture, the officers of the conquering army were desirous of paying every attention to their captives. Steuben sold his favorite horse to raise money to give an entertainment to the British officers. At the disbanding of the army, his generosity was conspicuous in relieving the distresses of the soldiers. He is said to have given his last dollar to a wounded black man, to assist him in getting home. His charities extended to every object of want, at the same time rendering himself poor.

At the earnest solicitation of general Washington, congress granted him a pension of $2500. The state of New Jersey gave him a farm, and the state of New York, 16,000 acres of new land in the county of Oneida. On the latter he built him a log house, cleared a small portion of it, and lived in retired contentment, until his death in 1795.

TURKEY. The extent and population of the Turkish empire previous to its recent losses, were estimated as follows. In Europe 180,000 square miles, and 10,000,000 of inhabitants. European Turkey was bounded by Russia on the north, Austria and the Adriatic sea on the west, the Mediterranean on the south, and the waters dividing it from Asia on the east. By the recent emancipation of Greece, Turkey has lost about one third of this territory and population. In Asia, its territory is estimated at 425,000 square miles, and its inhabitants at 10,000,000, and is surrounded by Russia, Persia, Arabia, and the Mediterranean.

In Africa, its territory was 300,000 square miles, and its inhabitants 3,000,000, comprehending Egypt and Nubia, and excluding the states of Barbary, over which it exercises only a nominal supremacy. The African possessions are not only lost in effect, but the pacha of Egypt has become one of the most formidable enemies of the sultan. The whole extent of the Turkish empire as it was in 1820, is estimated at 900,000 square miles, and its population at 23,000,000; of which thirteen are Mahometans, seven Christians of the Greek church, and the residue Christians of various sects.

GOVERNMENT. Though in our survey of the present condition of the world we are still on European ground, the manners, customs, religion, and government of Turkey is Asiatic, presenting a very different cast from the European. The government of Turkey is an absolute despotism. In Europe, the most absolute sovereigns dare not trifle with the lives of their subjects, or take their property, except by a general assessment. The constitution, as it is called, of Turkey, rests upon seven collec-

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tions of political laws, taken from the Koran, and is altogether oriental.

Instead of restricting the power and prerogatives of the sovereign, as is the professed design of European constitutions, its object is to enlarge them. The sultan, or grand signior, as he is indifferently called, is also supreme caliph or high priest, uniting in his person the highest spiritual dignity with the supreme secular authority. He has unlimited power over the lives and property of his subjects, especially of the high officers of state, whom he can remove, plunder, or put to death, at pleasure. They are required submissively to kiss the bow-string which he sends them, wherewith they are to be strangled. The sultan makes laws himself, not being in any manner subject to them. The Koran, as he interprets it, and the dread of public opinion breaking out in the form of rebellion, are the only restraints to which he is subject.

There are no orders of nobility in Turkey, the subjects of the grand signior being all equal, that is, slaves. The succession is nominally hereditary in the family of the reigning prince; but the will of the people, expressed by tumultuous risings, or the arms of the janizaries, often decide on the individual. On the extinction of the male posterity of Osman, right to the throne passes into the family of the former Tartar Khan. The sultan is never crowned, but girded with the sword of Osman, and sworn to support the religion of Mahomet.

SERAGLIO. The female establishment of the sultan is of a peculiar character, consisting of as many women as his fancy dictates. They are all slaves, generally Circassians or Georgians, and strictly confined to the imperial harem or seraglio. No free born Turkish woman can be admitted as an odalic, or concubine to the sultan. They are attended by female slaves, and guarded by black eunuchs, purchased and brought from the east of Africa, where a profitable business is carried on of fitting children for this purpose. The principal eunuch of the seraglio is called the Aga, and is a person of considerable consequence. When the women are to be transferred from the seraglio of the city to their summer residence on the Bosphorus, it is done at break of day, passing from the gardens to the boats between two screens, while a guard of eunuchs precede and warn every person to keep at a distance on pain of death. Each boat has a closely covered cabin in which the women are placed, and the eunuchs guard the entrance and keep the boatmen at a distance. From this collection of concubines the sultan chooses seven wives. The Koran in terms allows him but four; by a liberal construction, however, of this article, any number short of double the one specified, is taken to be within its provision. These wives are called cadins, and each has a splendid apartment, and numerous attendants. She who first presents a male heir, is, by way of

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eminence, called the sultana; and having thus proved her fidelity to the sultan, as he supposes, is allowed to appear without a veil.

The women of the harem are not absolutely denied a physician, but when allowed one, he must not see their faces; they must be on a bed covered with a thick counterpane, and their pulse felt through a gauze covering. The lives of the ladies of the imperial harem are a monotonous round of dressing, bathing, walking in the gardens, and attending voluptuous dances. Being prohibited from all opportunity of attracting the attention of the other sex, this is found to be a dull and irksome task.

PRIVATE HAREMS. The harems of the sultans are imitated by the grandees, the great officers of state, and all whose wealth will admit of it, in a greater or less degree, according to their circumstances. The higher the grade of the master, the more numerous, and the more strictly watched are his female slaves. Marriage, or the exclusive connection of one man with one woman, as understood by the rest of Europe, has no place in Turkey. Domestic society and social intercourse, in which women take a part, are unknown. The strictness with which they are guarded, shows that chastity, as a principle or virtue, does not exist.

By the religion of Mahomet, women are not considered as having souls of the same grade as men, and are admitted into his paradise for the same purpose only that they are placed in the harems.

PRINCES OF THE BLOOD. The princes, or sons of the sultan, are usually brought up in confinement, with the eunuchs and concubines of the harem. Each is required to learn some mechanic art, but never acquire a knowledge which would fit them to rule. On the death of the sultan, they have nothing before them but the throne or a violent death. The daughters have the title of sultana, and while in the cradle, are married to viziers, pachas, or other great officers; their male posterity, by a law of the empire, are condemned to death, lest among them there should rise up a competitor for the throne.

The domestic establishment of the reigning sultan, including all the women, eunuchs, guards and attendants, amounts to about 10,000.

The seraglio, or sultan's summer palace, stands on a point of land projecting into the sea from Constantinople; its walls embrace a circuit of nine miles, including mosques, spacious gardens, and buildings capable of accommodating 20,000 persons. The sultan is served by pages, who are generally Asiatics of humble origin. They are divided into four chambers or classes, according to their respective employments.

The mutes of the seraglio, persons deprived of their speech to prevent their revealing secrets, are about forty in number.

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They were formerly employed to perform all capital executions with the bow string. These, with about the same number of dwarfs, form a body of court fools, kept for the purpose of making mirth. The dwarfs often serve the purpose of footstools for the sultan to mount his horse.

MAHMOUD II. Mahmoud II. was born July 20th, 1785, and brought up in the seraglio. Mustapha IV., older brother of Mahmoud, ascended the throne in 1807, and according to the custom ordered this brother to be put to death, to rid himself of a competitor. Mahmoud being rescued by an officer, Mustapha was deposed, and he girded with the sword of Osman, July 20th, 1808. One of his first acts to secure his possession, was the murder of Mustapha and his infant child; a second was, to cause four pregnant sultanas of Mustapha to be sewed up in sacks, and thrown into the Bosphorus. After securing to himself a title to the throne by these means, he remained the only descendant of the family of the prophet. His subsequent conduct corresponded well with the means by which he obtained the supremacy. His principal favorites were Baschi his barber, who could neither read nor write; and Khalet, a courtier, who amused the sultan with his buffoonery.

In the midst of every thing which a depraved taste could call pleasure, Mahmoud was unhappy, and tormented with constant fears of assassination, or revolution. He exercised every species of cruelty, watching with a jealous eye over the execution of a bloody police; this in turn, served only to increase the disposition and danger of revolt. The great and powerful ones around the throne, were the slaves of his humors and suspicions. No high officer, innocent or guilty, was secure of his life, or the enjoyment of his property.

Mahmoud's policy drove the Greeks to despair, and a prospect of war with one of his pachas gave them encouragement, and brought on a revolution. The first intelligence which he had of any hostile movements among the Greeks, was from a foreign ambassador, his own courtiers not daring to inform him of bad news. An order was immediately issued by Khalet, in the name of his sovereign, that every christian capable of bearing arms should be put to death. The christian population of Turkey was then estimated at 10,000,000; and this order embraced at least an eighth part, or upwards of 1,200,000. Orders were also issued that the whole Greek population of Epirus, where the revolution first commenced, should be massacred, including every age, sex, and condition, and that the whole Morea, the finest part of Greece, should be laid waste.

REIGNING SULTAN. Mahmound II. died in 1839, and the government of Turkey is now in the hands of his son, Abdul Medjid, who was born April 20th, 1823, and was installed into power

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July 1st, 1839, at the age of sixteen years. The public acts of Turkey describe the Sultan as ruler "by the infinite grace of the Creator of the world, and the eternal being, and through the mediation and great merits of Mahomet Mustapha, upon whom rests the blessing of God, servant and master of the cities of Mecca, Medina, and Jerusalem, to which all men turn their faces when they pray. Padisha of the three great cities of Istambul, Edrench, and Bursa, which all princes regard with envy."

REBELLION IN 1822. In November, 1822, a rebellion broke out in the city, the object of which was to dethrone the sultan, and put him and his ministers to death. The two favorites, Baschi and Khalet, the authors of so many exactions, and the grand vizier, were banished. In the December following Khalet was sentenced to death by a firman from the sultan, and executed by the Aga of the janizaries, and his property seized by the government. Mahmoud saved himself only by a compliance with the wishes of the janizaries, in punishing all his favorites who were obnoxious to them. This corps were the principal authors of the rebellion of 1822, and were objects of the sultan's jealousy and dread. This apparent compliance with their demands was only temporary and deceptive. A second rebellion took place in 1826, when a firman was issued, declaring that the janizaries were dissolved, since which, that body has ceased to exist.

JANIZARIES. These formidable troops, the terror of nations, and oftentimes of their masters, had their origin about the middle of the 14th century. In 1389, Amorath having conquered the greater part of what afterwards constituted Turkey in Europe, was advised by his vizier, that by the laws of the Koran he was entitled to one fifth part of the spoils of the conquered countries, including the captives. The right of making slaves of the prisoners, or otherwise disposing of their persons, being then unquestioned, the vizier recommended to the sultan to take his share of the captives from the young, capable of bearing arms, educate them in the Mahomedan religion, and in the art of war, and form them into a corps for the defence of the empire.

This advice was followed, and a new military body formed, and consecrated by a celebrated dervish, standing in front of their ranks, and stretching the sleeve of his gown over the head of the foremost soldier, he blessed them in the name of Mahomet, and said, "let them be called *janizaries*, new soldiers. May their countenances be ever bright, their hand victorious, their sword keen. May their spear always hang over the heads of their enemies, and wherever they go may they return with a white face." From that period this body has been kept, and supplied from the sultan's share of captives, and where that

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proved insufficient, by recruits raised every five years from his Christian subjects.

Mahmoud has of late been modelling his army upon the European system. His present military establishment consists of 200,000 men, and in time of war may be increased by bands of feudal vassals, to the amount of 150,000 additional. The grand vizier, by virtue of his office, is supreme military commander. The Turkish navy consists of ten ships of the line, twenty frigates, and thirty small vessels.

Mahmoud has been engaged in three unsuccessful wars with Russia; in the last, which was commenced in 1829, a Russian army passed the Balcan mountains, considered as an impregnable barrier between Russia and Turkey, and descending into the plains of Adrianople, took that city, the second in the empire, and advanced within one hundred miles of Constantinople. Nothing saved the capital but a peace, the terms of which were dictated by Russia. One of the most important of the provisions of this treaty was, that the passage of the Bosphorus to the Black sea should be free to all nations at peace with the Porte, thereby opening the trade of the south of Russia to the commerce of the world, on the same terms as enjoyed by her ports in the north.

DIVAN. The supreme council of state is called the divan, and is held in the hall of the seraglio, under the presidency of the grand vizier. The ordinary divan consists of the high officers of the empire; the reis effendi, or the minister of state; the minister of finance; the capudan pacha, or high admiral, and the agas, or commanders of troops. On extraordinary occasions, the mufties, and several other officers are added. This body, with the sultan, is called the sublime porte. The term is taken from the gate of the hall through which the members of the divan pass, and is ordinarily used to denote the Turkish government collectively.

The mufti is the chief of the priests, and the highest interpreter of the Koran, the source of all political, civil and criminal law. The highest tribunal is held four times a week by the grand vizier in his palace. The mullas hold tribunals of an inferior order in the large cities, and the cardis in the smaller places. The moslems under them execute their sentences. The administration of justice is prompt and simple, without the intervention of juries, or the use of forms. The common punishments are the bastinado, hanging, drowning, strangling with the bow-string, and impaling.

PACHAS. The provinces are governed by pachas, whose rank and dignity are designated by the number of horse tails which are allowed to be worn or carried before them on great occasions; the pacha of three tails being the highest; of two, the middle grade, and of one the lowest. They exercise despotic

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power over their provinces, with little other restrictions or supervision of the sultan, than what is requisite to obtain from them as great a contribution as possible. A country thus governed, presents an aspect in every thing the reverse of prosperity. Industry is discouraged, no one having any security that he shall enjoy the fruits of his labor. Wealth, if obtained, is studiously concealed, lest it should be made the occasion of robbing the proprietor, or depriving him of life. Hence, Turkey, though spreading over a fair and fertile portion of Europe and Asia, presents an aspect of poverty.

The nation of Turks are descendants of Scythians, and hordes or clans of Tartars from the north of Asia, who on the breaking up of the Roman empire, invaded and conquered its eastern section, and embracing the Mahometan religion, made it the instrument of establishing and perpetuating their empire.

MAHOMET. Mahomet, or Mahommed, the founder of the Mahometan religion, was born at Mecca, a considerable city in Arabia, in the year 569 of the Christian era, and was left an orphan at two years of age. It was not until after his fortieth year, and after he had acquired considerable property, partly by mercantile speculation, and partly by marriage, that he began to assume the character of a prophet. For several years his proselytes were few, including his wife and a few friends. Mahomet was subjected to fits of epilepsy. He turned this misfortune to good account in propagating his doctrines, pretending that during the attacks he received revelations of the will of God towards man. In the twelfth year of his pretended mission, his enemies in Mecca having formed a conspiracy to assassinate him, he fled to Medina, where his doctrines were prevalent. His flight, called in Arabic *Hegira*, took place July 16, 622, and is the commencement of the Mahometan calendar, or computation of time.

From the period of the flight, the Mahometan religion has been propagated by the sword with various success. Mahomet from a fanatic, became a cruel and vindictive conqueror. Licentious and corrupt in his morals, whenever he wished to indulge in any vice, or commit any unauthorized acts, his epileptic fits furnished him with convenient opportunities for trances, in which, according to his story, he had further communications with the angel Gabriel, who furnished him with new chapters to be added to the Koran, justifying the deeds which he wished to perform. A continued success attended his arms after the flight; in the course of ten years, he had subdued nearly all Arabia. His success drew to his standard freebooters from all quarters, who much preferred plundering others, to being themselves the subjects of plunder. They were freely indulged, and the arms of Mahomet became every where irresistible. In the tenth year of the Hegira, he paid his last visit to Mecca,

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accompanied by 100,000 followers. He died at Medina the next year, A. D. 632, at the age of sixty-three.

KORAN. The Koran, or Mahometan bible, as finally completed and left by Mahomet for the direction of his followers, both as to their civil and religious duties, is the only sacred book, and their only written law. It is about the size of the new testament, and has been translated into nearly all languages. Considerable portions of it have evidently been taken from the Jewish and christian scriptures, and the whole is a compound of Judaism, christianity and idolatry.

Its leading doctrines are:

1st. The entire unity and perfection of God.

2d. That Mahomet is his prophet, and the will of God is only to be known by the revelations to this prophet as contained in the Koran.

3d. That Moses and Jesus were great prophets and law givers, but that Mahomet is greater than either.

4th. The absolute decrees of God.

5th. A future judgment, and state of rewards and punishments.

The principal duties enjoined by the Koran are:

1st. Prayer, fasting, alms, and a pilgrimage to Mecca. Prayer is to be performed five times a day, with the face turned towards Mecca.

2d. Temperance, consisting in abstinence from wine; other intoxicating liquors being then unknown.

3d. An observance of strictly pure and moral precepts.

4th. The Koran is not only the fundamental code of theology, but also of civil and criminal jurisprudence. The laws which regulate the conduct of mankind towards each other, and those in relation to property, are guarded, by the immutable sanction of the will of God.

In respect to the laws relating to marriage, divorce, inheritance, &c., Mahomet has followed the laws of Moses, and the decisions of the rabbies. The paradise promised to all true believers, is a sensual one, containing abundant means of gratifying the prevailing inclinations of his followers. The Koran is a singular compound of the Mosaic, Christian and Pagan systems, interspersed with much of its author's own invention. To the Jew he says, he is the last and greatest of their prophets, sent to restore and perfect their ancient system. To the Christian, that Jesus was the greatest and best of prophets. To his own countrymen, he meddles with few of their ancient customs and prejudices, except that of the worship of idols, which he endeavors to transfer to other objects. He requires of his followers no formal renunciation of their ancient faith, but only to say "that God is great, and Mahomet is his prophet."

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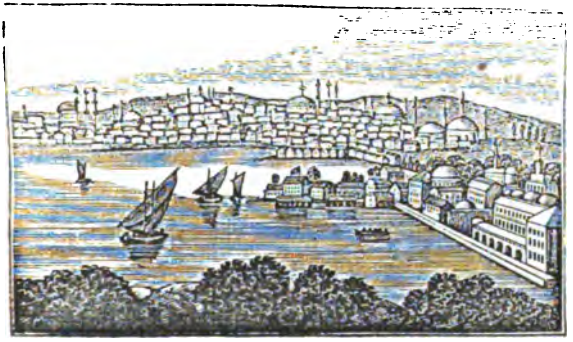

Constantinople.

CONSTANTINOPLE. Constantinople, the capital of the Turkish empire, stands on the European side of the Bosphorus, a strait which divides Europe from Asia, and unites the Black sea with the sea of Marmora in latitude 41°

Grand Mosque of St. Sophia, at Constantinople.

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The strait, at its narrowest point, is one mile in width. The inhabitants of the city and suburbs, are variously estimated from 600,000 to 1,000,000; 200,000 of which are Greeks.

The principal entrance into the imperial palace, is through a splendid gate or porte, from whence the government is called the Sublime porte. The city is distinguished for the variety and grandeur of its public buildings, denoting the wealth and power of the various sultans, by whom they have been erected. Strangers visiting Constantinople never fail to frequent and admire the public baths, of which there are 130 in the city, provided with every convenience which can administer to the comfort of the guests.

Constantinople is one of the oldest cities in Europe; its foundation was laid by Constantine the great, in the year 329. and made the capital of the eastern Roman empire. The most celebrated public building in Constantinople, is the grand mosque of St. Sophia, which was formerly a Greek church, dedicated to the Holy Wisdom, or Sancta Sophia; it is 270 feet in length, and 230 in breadth.

Bursa, or the southern or Asiatic side of the sea of Marmora, eighty miles southwest of Constantinople, is the principal city of Asiatic Turkey, and was the capital of the Turkish empire until its conquests in Europe. It has a population of 60,000.

GREECE. The name of Greece has, at different times, been applied to designate different portions of territory in and near the southwestern peninsula of Europe. In its limited application, it embraced only the peninsula of the Morea, anciently Sparta and Lacedemonia, and the adjacent islands. The peninsula is washed on three sides by the Mediterranean, and bounded on the north by Macedonia. At other times it included Macedonia, a part of Asia Minor, and the adjacent islands. The boundaries of modern Greece as settled by the protocol of February 3d, 1830, between Great Britain, France, and Russia on the first, the Ottoman empire on the second, and the States of Greece on the third part, comprehended only what was Greece proper, or in its most restricted sense. The present population of Greece, as thus defined, is 800,000; being the descendants, and occupying the territory, of the most enlightened nation of antiquity. Greeks, however, are to be found in all parts of the Turkish empire, retaining their national character; the whole Greek population is estimated at 3,500,000.

ANCIENT GREECE. Ancient Greece, at the time when learning and the arts were at their height, denominated the rest of the world barbarians. It then consisted of a number of small republics, bound together by a slight confederacy, and often at war with each other. The term republic then denoted not a representative government, but one in which the affairs of the com-

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monwealth were managed by the people in their primary assemblies. Such a government was favorable to the display of oratory, exercised for the purpose of governing popular meetings. On these occasions, eloquence has been displayed, which has been the admiration of succeeding ages. At the same time, such a government was the most unpropitious towards preserving domestic tranquility, or providing the means of defence against a foreign enemy.

Two hundred years before the Christian era, Rome extended her dominion over Greece, which from that period ceased to be an independent nation. The Roman policy was to incorporate its conquered provinces into an empire, making them one in interest with the conquerors. Though Greece hereby lost the power of self government, and with it the incentives to eloquence, the change, as it prevented internal commotion and civil war, was beneficial to the people.

GREECE UNDER THE TURKISH POWER. Greece remained a portion of the eastern or Byzantine division of the Roman empire, until it fell under the dominion of the Saracens, or Turks, in the fifteenth century. The policy of the latter conquerors of Greece was the reverse of the former. The barbarous principle, that the lives and property of the captives were at the absolute disposal of the captors, was adopted in its fullest extent. The right of making them slaves necessarily resulted from this doctrine. Suffering a captive to live, on any terms, was a favor gratuitously bestowed. Great numbers of Greeks were sold into slavery, and the extortions of the sultan and his pachas, upon the remainder, were measured only by the ability of the subject. The inhabitants of Greece remained in this abject condition, from 1450 to 1821. In all their revolutions, they maintained a distinct national character, preserving to themselves their language and manners. They never amalgamated with the Romans, and much less with the Turks, between whom and the Greeks there was a reciprocal hatred.

REVOLUTION. In 1821, this feeling ripened into an insurrection which terminated in a revolution. It commenced March 23d, 1821, at a small town in Achaia, by seizing upon eighty Turkish soldiers, and making them prisoners; and in a short time spread over the whole territory. It at first had a most unpromising appearance. It was the rising of a country containing less than a million of inhabitants, poor, without resources or any bond of political union, against a government of upwards of twenty millions of subjects, and having 200,000 disciplined soldiers at command. There were, however, some circumstances in the condition of Turkey, favorable to the cause of Greece. It was flanked on the north and west by two powerful states, Russia and Austria, who would rejoice to see its territory and

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power diminished. The sultan had rendered himself unpopular by his cruelties; the janizaries and some of the pachas were ripe for rebellion.

MEETING OF THE FIRST CONGRESS. April 6th 1821, a political body called the Messinian senate, assembled in the Morea, and declared "that the peninsula had shaken off the yoke of Turkey, to save the Christian faith and restore the ancient character of their country; from Europe, they wanted nothing but arms, money, and counsel." The massacre of the inhabitants of Patras about the same time, was the signal for a struggle of life and death. The history of this war, from that period until its termination, in 1829, presents a continued series of massacre and devastation on the one hand, and a desperate resistance on the other. The orders of the sultan on several occasions to his commanders, show the principles on which the war was conducted on the part of the Turks. To one he says, "let no Christian capable of bearing arms be left alive;" and to another, "bring me the ashes of Peloponesus."

MASSACRES. In the most gloomy periods of this death-like struggle, not a voice was heard for submission. All was determined resistance; and when opportunity offered, the massacres of the Turks were retaliated with a vengence. The Greeks in the revolted provinces were not the only sufferers; those in other parts of the empire became the objects of suspicion and revenge. On mere suspicion, and often for the sole purpose of getting their property, the richest Greek merchants and bankers of Constantinople, and other cities, were put to death. The rage of the mussulmen was particularly directed against the clergy of the Greek church. The massacre of Gregory, the patriarch of Constantinople, and head of the Greek church, was peculiarly aggravating. He was upwards of eighty years old, and universally respected for his learning and piety. He had uniformly exhorted the clergy of his patriarchate to obedience and a patient submission to the will of God. Similar outrages took place in other cities. In Adrianople, the patriarch Cyrillus, who had retired to solitude, and had taken no part in the recent transactions, and the archbishop, were massacred. Several hundred Greek churches were torn down in other places. The Greeks in the island of Candia, (Crete,) who had avoided all participation in the insurrection, were disarmed, and their archbishop, and several priests murdered. In the island of Cyprus, also, where there had been no appearance of an insurrection, the citizens were disarmed; and nearly all the inhabitants of Lanira, with their archbishop and prelates, were put to death. Sixty-two villages on the island were burned. The fate of Scio, ancient Chios, was one of the most severe and distressing. Scio is one of the largest and richest islands of the Grecian

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Archipelago, containing at the commencement of the revolution, 120,000 inhabitants.

A Turkish army was landed on the island in April, 1822, and after a sanguinary battle, 40 000 inhabitants, without distinction of age or sex, were massacred after all resistance had ceased. In the June following, the scene was renewed, when 30,000 more were butchered. In March, 1823, the miserable remnant of the inhabitants, amounting to 16,000, were murdered or carried off, some of them to Constantinople, where they were purchased by the Turks, for the purpose of murdering them at pleasure. The merchants of Scio, resident at Constantinople, and the hostages which had been carried there as pledges for the conduct of the citizens, were put to death.

TREATMENT OF GREECE BY THE HOLY ALLIANCE. About this time a species of central government established in Greece, issued a proclamation, presenting their case to their Christian brethren throughout the world; and sent a deputation to the congress of the holy alliance, then assembled at Verona. This deputation were not admitted to a conference, or allowed to present their case before them, but the holy alliance issued a circular condemning the revolution, as it might have been expected, asserted it to be the duty of the Greeks to submit to the sultan.

GENERAL SYMPATHY. The sentiments of the holy alliance, however, were not in unison with the sympathies of their subjects and of the Christian world. Liberal contributions were made in behalf of the Greeks, in Great Britain, France, Holland, and Germany. A philanthropic society to aid their cause was composed of the first characters in France, and raised upwards of $12.000 to furnish supplies for Missilonghi. The present king of France, then duke of Orleans, contributed liberally to their relief.

Ladies of high rank introduced a custom of closing their drawing-room parties by contributions to the same object. The same spirit pervaded Germany. Louis, king of Bavaria, signed a subscription to the Greek fund, and encouraged his soldiers to fight in their cause. In Saxony, and other parts of Germany, societies were formed, which contributed liberally to their aid. The contributions also in Great Britain, by individuals, and various benevolent associations, were abundant.

LORD BYRON. Lord Byron closed his short and eccentric career in the service of the Greeks. In August, 1823, one of the most gloomy periods of the revolution, he landed in Greece, with five or six friends, carrying with him $50,000, a great portion of it his own money, for the relief of Missilonghi, and raised a corps of 500 Greeks at his own expense. His health and

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constitution failed by means of his great exertions; on being urged to quit the country on that account, he replied, "I cannot quit Greece while there is a chance of my being of any supposed utility. There is a stake worth millions such as I am, and while I can stand at all I must stand by the cause; while I say this I am aware of the difficulties, distresses, and defects of the Greeks themselves; but allowance must be made for them by all reasonable people." Without being able to do more, he died near Missilonghi, in April, 1824, at the age of thirty seven.

Animated by a principle of philanthropy, or a thirst for fame, and probably in most instances by both, two hundred foreign officers formed themselves into an association called Philhellenes, or friends of Greece, and engaged in the service. It was one of no ordinary hazard. The Turks considered the Greeks as rebels and traitors. The war was one of extermination, with fearful odds against them. Foreigners engaged in their service were viewed in the same light, without the apology of fighting for the liberties of their country.

THE CAUSE OF GREECE IN THE UNITED STATES. The laws of the United States, carefully guarding against giving any cause of complaint to foreign nations, prohibit their citizens from bearing arms in any foreign service. This salutary provision prevented the citizens from joining the armies of Greece, and saved many valuable lives. The cause, however, received their united and effectual support. In addition to the sympathies in behalf of the oppressed, a feeling common to the people of Europe and America, the latter considered the cause of Greece as founded upon the same principle with their own revolution.

Societies were formed in the principal cities and villages for the purpose of collecting contributions in money, provisions and clothing. Several vessels were fitted out with cargoes arising from these donations, and sent to Greece under the superintendence of agents, to direct their distribution. Two large frigates were built at New York for the Greek service, principally from contributions raised in Great Britain and America. But owing to mismanagement of the funds, and their ultimate failure, one was sold to defray the expenses, and but one reached the place of its destination.

INTERNAL DIFFICULTIES. The revolution of Greece was not without its internal difficulties. The people had been in their relation to the Turks a nation of slaves; they were incapable in the outset of self government. All wanted to command. Struggles for power and office, though the possession was hazardous, were not unusual; and that ambition common to republics, where office was open to all, had its full operation in the management of their political concerns. A constitution was

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formed in 1822, by a congress of sixty-seven deputies, from all the provinces of Greece, embracing the general principles of a republican government, but without sufficient energy beneficially to control the general affairs of the nation.

INTERFERENCE OF EUROPEAN POWERS. After a struggle of six years by Greece alone, against the whole power of the Ottoman empire, France, Russia, and Great Britain interposed. By a treaty entered into at London between these powers, July 6th, 1827, for the pacification of Greece they directed,

1st. That the boundary of the new State should be limited to what was strictly Greece proper, excluding the islands of Candia and Samos.

2d. That Greece thus defined, should enjoy a qualified independence under the sovereignty of the Porte. Its government to be an hereditary monarchy, under a Christian prince, not of the families of either of the allied sovereigns.

3d. That Greece should pay an annual tribute to the Porte of half a million of dollars; the first year's tribute to be not more than one third, nor less than one fifth that amount, and to be gradually increased for four years, until it should arrive at its maximum. On the accession of a new prince one year's additional tribute was to be paid.

4th. A joint commission was to be appointed by the Greeks and Turks, to determine on an indemnification to be paid to the Turks for property held in Greece, which they were to resign. The allied powers to appoint a court of appeal in case of disagreement.

5th. A cessation of hostilities immediately to take place, and the government of Turkey to have no further concern in the affairs in Greece.

BATTLE OF NAVARINO. These terms were communicated to the respective belligerents in August, 1827, and acceded to by the Greeks and rejected by the Turks. To show that the combined powers were in earnest, a fleet of English, French, and Russian ships were ordered to the Mediterranean. It was not the intention of the combined powers to commence hostilities, until every other means had been tried to bring about a pacification.

October 20, 1827, the combined fleet having approached the harbor of Navarino, on the southwest coast of the Morea, they found a Turkish Egyptian fleet of 214 sail, drawn up in line of battle. Some shots were fired from the Turkish fleet which killed two Englishmen. A general engagement immediately followed, in which the Turkish fleet was destroyed. It lasted without intermission three hours; 110 ships were burned, driven on shore, or disabled. None surrendered. The news of this event was received with joy by the people of Europe and

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America; but the governments by whose power it was achieved, were disposed to apologize; and it failed to procure an immediate acceptance of the terms of pacification by the Turks. A depradatory war still continued.

TERMS ACCEPTED. In November, 1828, the combined powers notified the Porte, "that they considered the Morea and the adjacent islands constituting Greece as they had defined it, to be under their protection, until a definite arrangement should decide its fate, and that they should consider the entrance of a military force into the country as an attack upon themselves, and required the Turkish government to come to an explanation concerning the final pacification of Greece."

In consequence of this measure, a negotiation took place between the ambassadors of France and Great Britain on the one part, and the Porte on the other. Pending this negotiation, a war which on other accounts had taken place between Russia and Turkey, was terminated by a treaty of peace, September 14th, 1829, one article of which stipulated that the Porte should agree to the terms of the allied powers relating to the pacification of Greece, as contained in their treaty of July, 1827. This terminated an eight years' war of a most barbarous and exterminating character, and devolved upon the allied sovereigns the duty of selecting a king for Greece. They chose Leopold, prince of Saxe Coburg. The proposition was made to him on the 3d of February, 1830, and accepted on the 20th; but on more mature consideration, he retracted his acceptance, May 21st, 1830, and another German, Otho, prince of Bavaria, was afterwards chosen, and is the present king of Greece.

ATHENS. The cities of ancient Greece are in ruins. The sites of Sparta and Corinth can scarcely be designated. Modern Athens is but the shadow of the ancient city of Minerva, where the light of science originated, and from whence it has spread through thousands of years, and over numerous nations down to the present time. Modern Athens, noted for nothing but being near the site of the ancient city, and containing many relics precious to the antiquarian, previous to the late revolution, contained 10,000 Greeks and 2000 Turks.

The preceding view of the present condition of Europe is full of interest to the American citizen. From it he may infer that there is but little to fear of the United States being troubled by wars with European powers, and that if they should occur, such is the power and resources of this country, and such the situation of European governments, that the most disastrous consequences would be felt by the latter. The pacific policy of the American government prevents her from seeking war with any nation, and the causes above named will naturally tend to

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induce other governments to avoid a collision with the United States.

Although the combined exertion of the absolutists under the direction of the holy alliance, may have retarded for a while the progress of liberal principles, they are still advancing: and while the United States continue to furnish so glorious an example of the benefits of free institutions, the cause of rational liberty will continue to spread in Europe, to the joy of patriots, and the grief of tyrants.

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CHAPTER VIII.

Asia. Its boundaries. Extent and population. Ancient Asia. General principles of the present Asiatic governments. Points of difference between them and the European. Despotism. Religion. Grand Lama. China. Its extent. Population. Military force. Government. Powers of the emperor. The mandarins. Laws. Religion. Foe. Tradition concerning him. Principles inculcated. Confucius. Language; Verbal; Written. Number and nature of Chinese characters: manner of writing. Art of printing. Occupation and condition of the poor. Tea. Quantity raised. Quantity exported and consumed in Great Britain. In the United States. Hong merchants. Their monopoly. Its effects. The opium trade; difficulties with Great Britain. Rivers and canals. Navy and navigation. Principal cities. Pekin. Canton. Nankin.

ASIA. Asia is separated from the southern portion of Europe by the black sea; and its waters communicating with the Mediterranean. The isthmus of Suez connects it with Africa, to the extent of sixty miles. The Red Sea and the Arabian gulf separate the two continents on the residue of the eastern border of Asia. It is encompassed on all other sides by water, bearing the name of the Indian, Pacific, and Frozen oceans. On the northeast of Asia, in latitude 66°, the eastern and western continents are separated by Behring's straits, forty miles wide at the narrowest point. The precise boundary between land and water, in the northern regions of the eastern continent is not ascertained. In Asia, some points of land are supposed to extend within twelve degrees of the pole; but neither land or water, in those regions, are capable of being converted to the use of man. The geographical extent of Asia is from latitude 2° to 78° north; and from 26° to 190 east, being at the same point as 170° west longitude. Its extreme length is 8000, and breadth 4000 miles, and is computed to contain 16,000,000 square miles, and more than one half of the human race.

ANCIENT ASIA. Asia is, in many respects, an interesting portion of the globe, not so much from its present condition as from what it has been. It is the origin of the human family of all nations, religions, and States; of language, arts, and scien-

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ces. It is rich in the gifts of nature, and in historical remembrances. The theatre of human operations in ancient times, it still exhibits some characteristic traits of what it has been. It contains the site of Eden, of Babylon, of Jerusalem, and the places where most of the important events related in ancient Jewish and Christian history were exhibited.

Asia was the seat of civilization when Europe was barbarous. In later periods the scene is changed. Europe has gained what Asia has lost. Arts, learning, civilization, and improvement, have been progressing for centuries, from east to west. All the grades of society are still to be found in the existing nations of Asia, from the savage state of wandering hordes, to a condition of refined luxury, but liberty, founded in law and a high state of moral and intellectual improvement, is not to be found.

Some of the most important differences between the present Asiatic and European nations are,

1st. In the nature of their respective governments. Absolute monarchy, or despotism, the prevailing government in Asia, is a different thing from what it is in Europe. There the king, emperor, or sovereign, under whatever name he is designated, has the lives and property of his subjects at his control, and can take either, at his pleasure, without account. A regular assessment, according to the ability of the subject, is scarcely known. This tyranny is exercised, especially in distant provinces, by subordinate officers, with extreme rigor. The idea that the obligations between the governors and governed are reciprocal, and that in return for the obedience, money, and services of the subject, the government owes him protection and safety, is not admitted in the Asiatic system of civil policy. The monarch is every thing, and the people nothing.

2d. In the means of education. Universities, colleges, and schools of various orders, with which European nations abound, and which diffuse useful knowledge through the community, are not to be found in Asia. Printing establishments, in the manner, and for the purpose for which they exist in some of the nations of Europe, and in the United States, are unknown. The principal teachers are the priests, and the chief subjects taught, are blind obedience to the monarch, and the worship of idols.

3d. Another difference, being the result of the foregoing, is a state of deplorable ignorance, indolence, and want of enterprise among the people. Property being insecure, there is no inducement to acquire any more than to satisfy immediate want. Society is confined to castes; children learn nothing but the occupation of their parents, and in most cases are allowed to pursue no other. No improvements are made from one generation to another. To this state of indolence, the climate and soil, especially of southern Asia, also contributes. A great portion lies

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within the northern tropic, where the heat enervates; and the soil is either a barren desert, or fertile to such a degree as to render little labor necessary to procure what will sustain human life. This condition is as unfavorable to mental improvement as to bodily exertion, and the human intellect is here found in its least progressive state.

4th. In relation to perpetual personal servitude. In Europe it does not exist, except in Turkey, which is Asiatic in all its important features. In Asia, with few or no exceptions, it is allowed.

5th. In relation to marriage, and the station allotted to females in society. Marriage, in the European sense of the word, is unknown in Asia. Its inhabitants have no idea of the exclusive connection of one man with one woman on reciprocal terms, and for mutual benefit. The obligation is considered as all on the part of the female; and women are, indeed, little better than slaves. They are frequently matter of traffic between the parent and husband, and every one is allowed to purchase as many as he pleases; and being purchased, they must be subservient to his will. The lower classes do most of the labor; those of the higher are shut up and strictly watched, being allowed no intercourse, except with their attendant females, eunuchs, and their masters.

6th. Another important difference is, that the governments of Europe have certain fixed laws, established and known, by which the conduct of the subject is regulated; and these laws are enforced according to certain established principles, by judicial officers; and no persons are to be punished except for a violation of such as have been previously promulgated. Laws and courts, in this sense are not known in Asia. The will of the despot, no matter how promulgated, or how little known, is the law. The mode of enforcing it also depends on his will, and is accomplished by his subordinates without any fixed rules.

7th. Another important difference between the two countries, relates to the subject of religion. Asia was the birth place, and the cradle of Christianity; but it has so effectually left the country, that in describing its religion, it is scarcely to be mentioned. Mahometanism prevails to a considerable extent in western and central Asia. Idolatry, or paganism, in its various forms, constitutes the religion of the residue of the inhabitants, being about three fourths of the whole. The two important divisions or sects, are those of Brahma, and of the grand lama. The former has been already described. The grand lama, the high priest of the latter, is considered not merely as the representative of the divinity, but as God himself, dwelling among men. A belief of his eternal existence is connected with the doctrine of the transmigration of souls. His worshippers suppose that this divinity, as soon as it leaves the body of one grand

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lama at his death, immediately enters another human body in a supernatural way, so that he only changes his external form, and not his actual existence.

GRAND LAMA. The usual place of residence of the grand lama, or the person in whom this supreme divinity dwells on earth, is in two monasteries in the neighborhood of Lassa, the capital of Thibet. His abode is alternately at a fixed period in each, surrounded by a great number of priests of different grades. Natives in great numbers, and many foreigners, undertake fatiguing pilgrimages to pay him homage, and obtain his blessing. The Tartars, next to the inhabitants of Thibet, pay him the greatest reverence. Pilgrims come from distant regions, and the farther the distance, and the greater the difficulties attending the pilgrimage, the more is its merit. He receives them, sitting on a kind of throne or altar, on a splendid seat. The greatest prince and meanest subject, are of equal grade in his estimation, and treated alike. He salutes no one; never rises, or uncovers his head; but merely lays his hand upon them, by which they suppose that they receive the pardon of their sins, his blessing, and a passport to future happiness. His worshippers believe that the supreme divinity dwells in him; that he knows every thing which passes in the human breast, and has no need of information from without. He sometimes distributes balls of consecrated dough, which his followers gladly accept, and use in many superstitious ceremonies, believing them to possess a wonderful efficacy.

Worship of the Grand Lama.

When a grand lama dies, it becomes necessary to discover the person in whom the supreme divinity has chosen to be born anew. On this occasion, all must submit to the decision of some distinguished lamas, who affect a discovery by certain signs, the person who has been selected.

The grand lama has one subordinate lama, residing at ten

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day's journey from Lassa, and three shammers, or priests, next in order to him, residing in separate monasteries. Subordinate to these, are numerous priests of different ranks, who superintend instruction, and are held in high estimation. At Lassa are 3000 monasteries, or priest's houses. Their idols, one hundred in number, are supposed to be created beings, who attained to the rank of gods on account of their holiness, before this world was created. The earth, according to their belief, is inhabited by degenerate spirits from the upper world; and the human soul, after it has been subjected to a state of trial, enters upon a higher or lower state of existence in future, according to its conduct in this life. This doctrine of a future condition of happiness or misery, dependent upon the result of such trial, renders the worshippers of the lama, moral and benevolent. Their idol worship consists in clamorous songs and prayers, accompanied with music, in splendid and festive processions; in the observance of certain festivals, and in pilgrimages and penances. The grand lama and his subordinate priests, having the control of the consciences of the people, exact from them contributions at pleasure. Shamanism, a species of this religion, belongs to the tribes of northern Asia and the Russian Archipelago.

This gloomy picture of the religious, moral and political condition of more than one half of the human family, has excited the sympathies of the christian community in a high degree. Societies are formed, and exertions making, the purpose of which is to convert the world to Christianity. Asia is the principal theatre. Whatever differences of opinion there may be as to the final result of this great enterprise, there can be none as to its beneficial effects, so far as it may be accomplished.

China. From this view of the present condition of Asia in general, we pass to the consideration of its principal kingdoms, the most extensive and important of which is China. This empire, including its tributary states, and those under its protection, is computed to contain 5,000,000 of square miles, and 240,000,000 inhabitants, or about one third of the whole human race. All estimates of its extent and population are in a great degree conjectural. It is certain, however, that the Chinese government extends over a much greater mass of people than any other. One salutary effect at least, of the collection of such a number of people under one government, is the preservation of peace. China has been less afflicted with wars, since Europeans have become acquainted with its history, than any other nation.

China proper, called by its inhabitants the celestial empire, and the centre of the world, contains something more than 1,000,000 of square miles, and about 150,000,000 inhabitants. It lies on the eastern border of Asia, between 19° and 42° north latitude, and is bounded on the north by the celebrated wall of

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Mongola, 1500 miles in length, separating it from the Mongul Tartars, and on the east and south it is washed by the Chinese sea, a distance of 2000 miles. The Burman empire bounds it on the southwest, and Thibet and Tartary on the west. Its army is estimated at 900,000 men, and its annual revenue at $150,000,000.

It has been the policy of the Chinese government, from the earliest period at which Europeans had any intercourse with its inhabitants, to exclude foreigners from all knowledge of its internal concerns. For a long time they were not suffered to reside within its dominions, and at later periods only at certain designated places, where they could have the least opportunity of obtaining information of the country.

Several attempts have been made since the trade with China has become important, to establish diplomatic relations, but without success; they will neither send nor receive ambassadors; holding all foreigners in contempt, they consider it a species of degradation to have intercourse with them. The Chinese merchants themselves, with whom alone any intercourse is had, know little about their government, and are reluctant to communicate what knowledge they do possess. These circumstances, together with the peculiarities of the Chinese language, render it difficult to obtain an intimate knowledge of the country, and what is obtainable is not fully to be relied on.

GOVERNMENT. The government of China is an absolute despotism. Opposition to the will of the emperor is punished with instant death. He is styled the sacred son of heaven, sole ruler of the earth, the great father of his people. Not content with exacting from his subjects absolute and unconditional obedience, he requires of them adoration. Offerings are made to his image and to his throne. His people prostrate themselves before him and worship his person. His ministers, when receiving his orders, or spoken to by him, must kneel. When he goes out, the inhabitants take care to shut themselves up in their houses; all the shops in the streets through which he passes must be shut; whoever is met in his way, falls flat with his face on the ground, or is exposed to instant death. He is preceded by two thousand lictors, carrying chains, axes, and other instruments of eastern despotism. He has three wives, but one of which bears the name of empress, and a harem of concubines under the custody of eunuchs, as numerous as his vanity or passion dictates.

The only custom tending to limit the royal authority, is the liberty sometimes allowed the mandarins to remonstrate against what they consider to be the errors of government. These remonstrances, under a virtuous prince, sometimes produce salutary effects, but are often disregarded, and frequently are attended with dangerous consequences to the remonstrants.

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MANDARINS. The different civil and military offices are filled by a species of nobility called mandarins, deriving their title from their official stations, or personal qualities. There are 14,000 civil, and 18,000 military mandarins. The former are divided into nine, and the latter into five classes. Their rank is designated by the color of the buttons on their caps. These officers, in their respective spheres, are as absolute as the sovereign from whom they derive their power. A mandarin, entering a city belonging to his department, can order any person who has given him offence, to be arrested and put to death without trial, and without any person's venturing to undertake his defence. A high mandarin on entering a city is preceded by a hundred executioners, who announce his approach, and should any one neglect to retire to the wall, he is beaten with whips or rods of bamboo. The mandarin himself is subject to the same sort of discipline, for any provocation or disrespect to his soveveign.

CHINESE LAWS. The laws of China inculcate a system of good morals, which is but little observed. Using false weights and measures, and disguising the quality of goods offered for sale is common. Justice is ill administered, but those only suffer who neglect to pay the expected price. They have, indeed, courts, where in point of form, a private subject may prefer his complaint against a superior, but on an almost sure expectation of being foiled, and of suffering for his audacity.

The laws of China are stable, because the emperor does not wish to alter them, having all power placed in his hands; as little inclination have the mandarins to wish for a change, because the laws invest them with absolute authority over the people. They, in their turn, being ignorant and oppressed, are taught that it is impious to change the laws of "the celestial empire." There is no disunion among the great, for while they hold the lash over the heads of the multitude, they see the emperor's waving over their own.

There is no resistance on the part of the people, who, having much cunning, but no courage, find it safer to preserve a part of their property, by grovelling at the feet of their masters, than to risk the whole, together with their lives by opposition. All the notions of the Chinese from their infancy, are directed to a single point, obedience. The sacred nature of rank is perpetually inculcated by numerous ceremonies. At every step in the presence of an officer they make bows, and every phrase must be a compliment. It often happens that the poor on the point of starving, betake themselves to robbery, in considerable bodies. Such, when detected and overpowered, are hung.

China is more densely populated than any other extensive empire. The great mass of the people subsist upon the least portion of food which will sustain life. Historical information

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as to China is imperfect, and reaches only to recent periods; so far back as it does extend, it presents a picture very little varied from its present condition. According to its own traditions, its existence as a nation was many thousand years before the Mosaic creation.

The Chinese derive their religion from Foe, who is supposed to have been upon the earth about a thousand years before the Christian era. Their legend concerning him is this: that the mother of Foe was impregnated by a ray of light; that the moment he entered the world he stood upright on his feet, stepped forward seven steps, and pointing one hand to heaven and the other to the earth, spoke these words: "none in heaven or on earth deserves adoration besides me." In his seventeenth year he married three wives, and became the father of a son. In his nineteenth he left his family and went with four wise men into the wilderness. At the age of thirty he became a Foe, or divinity. He confirmed his doctrines, they say, by a series of miracles, gathered a great number of disciples, and spread his religion through the earth.

Lamaism, Brahmaism, and indeed all the superstitions of the east are supposed to be derived from this source, and are little else than different sects of the same religion. In his 79th year Foe perceiving his end approaching, declared to his disciples that hitherto he had spoken only in enigmatical or figurative language, but that now he would unveil to them the mysteries of his doctrine: these, as modified, enlarged and corrected by the most intelligent of his priests, and now received as the religion of China, are, that he who has done good in this life will be rewarded, and he who has done evil will be punished, after death; that there are two distinct places for these two sorts of souls, and to each soul a station is assigned according to his deserts; that the good Foe was born to save mankind, and bring back those who had strayed from the path of righteousness; that he suffered for their sins and obtained for them a happy resurrection; that he gave his followers five commandments; 1st, not to kill any living creature; 2d, to avoid impurity and unchastity; 3d, never to take the property of another; 4th, never to speak falsely; 5th, to refrain from strong drink.

The priests of Foe inculcate certain works of charity as necessary to salvation, particularly liberality to their order; the building of convents and temples, in which they may, by their prayers and pious exercises, deliver others from the punishment they deserve. They teach that whoever disobeys their commands, will suffer the most dreadful torments after death, and that his soul will enter the body of the vilest and most loathsome of animals.

They have a curious system of metaphysics, into the mysteries of which but few are initiated, and which are understood by none. The leading ones are, the origin and end of all things is

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nothing; the first human beings sprang from nothing, and have returned to nothing; this void or nothing constitutes being; all that exists sprang from nothing and a mixture of elements, and all must return whence it came; all things animate and inanimate constitute one whole, differing from each other not in essence, but in form and qualities; the original essence of all things is pure, unchangeable, and highly subtle and simple, and because it is simple, it is the perfection of all other beings; it is perfect and therefore exists in an uninterrupted quiet, without possessing virtue, power, or intelligence; its very essence consists in the absence of intelligence, activity and desire; whoever desires to be happy, must constantly endeavor to conquer himself, and become like the original essence; to accomplish this, he must accustom himself not to act, think, feel or desire. Their directions on this head, were summed up in this precept: "endeavor to annihilate thyself, for as soon as thou ceasest to be thyself, thou becomest one with God, and returnest into his being."

They believe in the transmigration of souls, and that when a soul first appears on earth, and animates a human body, it is that of a Brahmin. After his death it passes into the body of some other man, or of a beast, according to the preponderance of its good or evil deeds, until it finally enters the class of Samaneans, where it has no more crimes to expiate, all having been wiped off by former emigrations. He then needs no longer to worship the gods of the earth, they being only the servants of the supreme God of the universe. Free from passion, and incapable of crime, the Samanean dies only to return to the deity from which his soul emanated.

The Supreme Deity, the essence of all things, is eternal, invisible, incomprehensible, almighty, merciful, just and beneficent. He originated from himself. He cannot be represented by any image, neither can he be worshipped, because he is elevated above all worship; but his attributes may be represented by images and worshipped. This principle is the foundation of the worship of images, or idolatry, and of the multitude of tutelar deities in China.

All elements, the changes of weather, the various phenomena of the atmosphere, every rank, profession, and employment, have their gods. These deities are the principal officers of the Supreme God, SONG, WANG, MAN, who looks down from his seat in the highest heaven, in undisturbed quiet, upon the transactions of men. Every person makes an image of his guardian god, in wood or stone, and pays homage to it three times a day. The Samanean, or perfect man, is lost in the contemplation of the Supreme God, and makes it his chief concern to destroy himself, in order that he may return and be absorbed in the bosom of that being which created all things out of nothing.

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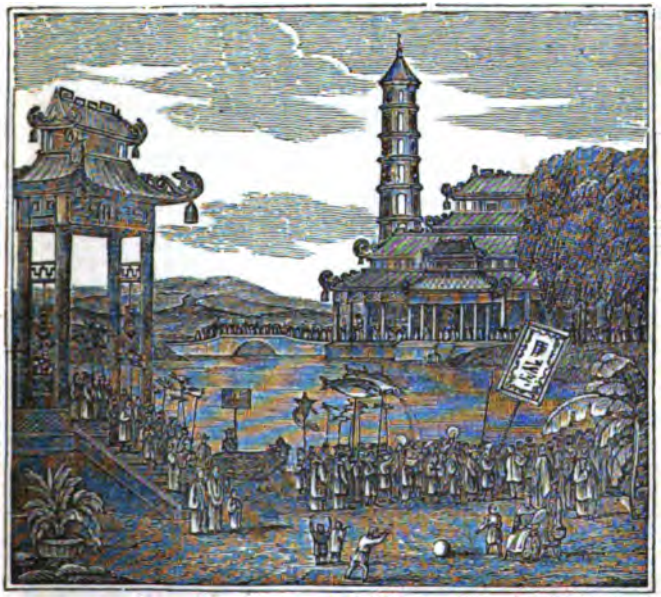
Confucius. The Chinese system of morals and religion, was much improved by the celebrated philosopher, Confucius, who lived about 500 years before the Christian era. He was of royal descent, and held the rank of mandarin at court, but as the king would not follow his advice, in measures to promote the good of his subjects, he resigned his dignity and offices, and became a private teacher of morals and philosophy. He taught the immortality of the soul. He favored the existing belief of his countrymen in fate, in soothsaying, and in the worship of certain genii, or good spirits, who preside over the elements, as well as the concerns of men. He enjoined universal benevolence, justice, virtue, and honesty. He taught his followers to



Feast of Lanterns.

observe all usages and customs which had become established; it being proper, in his estimation, that those who live together in society, should live in the same manner, enjoying each others's pleasures, and mutually sympathizing in their pains. Accompanying their creed are a great variety of ceremonies, among the most peculiar of which is the feast of lanterns, the principal feature of which is a numerous procession to the temple of their chief idol, bearing a great number of lanterns, in honor of their god.

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The Chinese empire and its tributaries, embraces one third of the human race, and its religion extends considerably beyond its political boundary; the foregoing may be considered in substance, the religious creed of nearly one half of the human family, commencing a thousand years before the Christian era. The creed and the customs of China have remained nearly stationary to the present time. Being much the largest empire in the world as to population, they hold in contempt other nations, and disdain to receive improvements from them. Of late, however, this principle has been ameliorating, and missionaries have been allowed to teach the Christian religion.

LANGUAGE. One great cause which has kept China in a stationary condition as to literature, religion, morals, and the arts, for so long a period, is the peculiarities of its language. To readers familiar with copious modern European languages, it is difficult to convey a correct idea of the Chinese. The inhabitants of China disdain to learn any language but their own, and a European finds himself ill requited for the great labor necessary to gain even an imperfect knowledge of theirs. Hence the little scientific intercourse between Europe and China.

The Chinese language belongs to that class of idioms denominated monosyllabic, that is, every word consists of one syllable only. Words may be combined together, but every syllable by itself is significant, and therefore is of itself considered a word. The number of significant syllables or words are said not to exceed 460, having, however, five or six different meanings, according to the different tones or accents with which they are uttered. By a kind of *cantilena*, the same monosyllable conveys several distinct ideas, according to the key on which it is pronounced. The language is destitute of grammatical forms; the nouns and verbs cannot be inflected, and have no auxiliaries to show their connection. The different modes, tenses, numbers, and cases, are left to be conjectured from the context, or from the manner in which they are used in relation to each other.

WRITTEN LANGUAGE. The Chinese written language has no alphabet, or any thing which corresponds to European letters. The use of certain artificial and arbitrary marks, a combination of which forms a word expressive of some idea, is at the same time one of the most wonderful and useful of human inventions; though like air or water, the use is so common, that it is little thought of or prized. The value of letters may be well understood by a view of the imperfections of the Chinese language without them. Like many other important improvements, they have been excluded from China by a contempt for foreigners and their arts.

Their writing is expressed by characters, of which there are

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said to be about 80,000, but about 10,000 of which are in common use, and a knowledge of the latter only is necessary to enable a person to read a Chinese book. The characters are again reduceable to 214 keys or radicals, each of them representing one word, and each word an idea. These radicals are combined together so as to express two or more words or ideas by the same compound character. Thus all the words expressive of manual labor are combined of the character which represents the hand, with some other word expressive of the occupation intended to be designated. The characters are written in a perpendicular form from top to bottom, beginning at the right, or what we should call the end of the book.

CHINESE PRINTING. According to the most authentic accounts, the Chinese understood the art of printing centuries before it was known in Europe; not, however, with moveable types, but more in the nature of stereotype, by carving their characters on blocks of wood; and at this point the art has, with them, been stationary for a thousand years. The advantage which civilized Europe and America have over China, in the free interchange of thought, is scarcely conceivable.

The present is, emphatically, the age of discovery and improvement. None, however, takes place in Europe or America, but what in a short time becomes common to both. The original invention is brought into immediate use, and improvements made upon it until it arrives to the highest degree of perfection of which it is capable. Not so in China. A false national pride prevents them from learning and bringing home to their own country the arts and improvements of other nations, while the imperfect means which they possess of communicating their thoughts to each other, prevents improvements at home.

A late American missionary gives the following as some of the Chinese peculiarities. They suppose the abdomen to be the seat of the mind; they make the left hand the place of honor; they change their outer garments most frequently; their color for mourning is white; they give the ladies the lowest place; a widow must obey the oldest son. When they meet and salute a friend, they shake their own hands; and wear their caps at table and in company. They drink their wine hot, and at the beginning of a feast. Among them the traveller furnishes his own bed, and the buyer his own scales. They wear the beard long, but shave the head. They say that men are by nature good. They despise priests and lawyers, and worship the serpent.

AGRICULTURE. The principal occupation of the inhabitants of China is agriculture. In a nation whose population exceeds 115 to each square mile of territory, allotting something less than three acres to each individual, land must be highly cultivated

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or there will be a failure of food. Every acre capable of cultivation is improved. Government bestows peculiar honors on this employment.

On the 15th day of the first moon, the emperor repairs in state to a field assigned for the purpose, attended by his principal officers, and prostrates himself, touching the ground nine times with his head, in honor of the god Tien, the tutelar divinity of agriculture. He next pronounces a prayer prepared for the occasion by the court of ceremonies, invoking the blessing of the great Being on his labors, and those of his people. The emperor, as high priest of the empire, sacrifices a bullock; and while the victim is burning on the altar, a plough is produced, and the emperor, laying aside his imperial and pontifical robes, takes hold of the plough and opens several furrows across the field. The principal mandarins follow his example, and the scene closes with the distribution of presents to the peasantry. In the same manner the emperor commences the sowing of seed. The viceroys perform similar ceremonies in the provinces on the same day.

TEA. Next to the production of rice, potatoes, and other vegetables with which human life can be sustained, is the cultivation of the tea plant. This article, now affording a daily wholesome beverage to nine tenths of the citizens of the United States, is almost exclusively the production of China. The cultivation and preparation of this plant has been attempted in Java and Brazil, but in consequence of the small value of labor in China, it has not been found profitable to cultivate the tea plant in any other portion of the world than in China and some of the Japanese islands.

INTRODUCTION OF TEA INTO ENGLAND. The first introduction of tea into England was in 1664, when the East India company presented Charles II. with two pounds. In 1800, the consumption in England was 20,000,000 of pounds; since which it has been nearly stationary. The first introduction of tea into British America to any extent, was about the year 1740. The quantity now consumed is 7,000,000 of pounds annually.

Ten different kinds of tea are quoted in the Boston and Hamburg markets. In 1806, the exports of tea from China were 45,000,000, thirty-one of which was sold to British, and thirteen to American merchants. Such is the home consumption, that it is thought that a suspension of the whole exportation would not materially affect the price. The Chinese almost live upon tea, drinking it freely at all times of the day, to the exclusion of intoxicating liquors. To this cause, and to their abstemious mode of living generally, is to be attributed their quiet disposition.

HONG MERCHANTS. The port of Canton only is open to foreign trade, and the whole business is confined by the govern-

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ment to a company of twelve persons, called *Hong merchants*, who alone are allowed any traffic with foreigners. They purchase all cargoes as they arrive, and furnish the returns. As is usual in monopolies, the trade is embarrassed, and the monopolizers are rich, having the power of fixing prices both in their purchases and sales. The producers of tea for foreign consumption must sell it at the prices the Hong merchants will give, or not at all; and foreigners must buy it also at their selling prices, or not have it. One of the largest annual importations into the United States from China, was in 1825, amounting to $7,573,115, and consisting of teas, porcelains, silks, and nankeens. The exports of the same year from the United States to China, were $5,570,515, only $160,000 of which were American productions.

The trade of the United States to China commenced immediately after the peace of 1783, and has increased with the growth of the country to the present time. It consists principally in the exchange of specie for its productions. Considerable alarm was excited in the early part of the period, lest such a couse of trade should impoverish the country, and many nice calculations were made respecting the balance of trade.

These fears have long since vanished, and the old doctrine relating to the balance of trade has been exploded. It is found that if the people of this country want a foreign article and are able to pay for it, they will have it: and though it may take gold or silver to procure it, they will find means by other productions to obtain it. Of late, very profitable voyages have been made by shipments of articles of little value, adapted to the wants or fancies of the islanders in the Pacific ocean; and exchanging them for the sandal wood of the islands, and transporting it to China, where it is purchased at a high price, for religious purposes in their temples.

THE OPIUM TRADE; DIFFICULTIES WITH GREAT BRITAIN. The opium trade to China was, for many years, one of great and increasing profit to those who were engaged in the shipment of this drug. The Portuguese at Macao engrossed this trade until 1780, when some English merchants established a depot to the southward of Macao; in 1794 they sent a vessel laden with two hundred chests to Whampoa, from which period the trade continued until 1820, when an imperial edict drove the vessels from Whampoa, after which they remained outside the port at Linton, where a contraband trade was soon organized. The parties who engaged in this traffic were mostly British and Indian merchants of Calcutta and Bombay, who had agents at Canton, and Americans who dealt chiefly in Turkey opium.

The increased use of this pernicious drug among the Chinese became alarming. In the nine years from 1827 to 1836, the importations increased from nine thousand five hundred to

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twenty-six thousand chests, and if the traffic had not been violently interrupted in 1839, it is supposed that forty thousand chests of opium would have found their way to China that year. The frightful increase of the use of opium among the people, formed a just cause of alarm on the part of the government; in 1834 another imperial edict was issued, warning foreigners of the danger of introducing opium into the country in defiance of its laws; in 1836, the governor of Canton urged the foreign merchants to send away all the opium ships; nor were the efforts of the Chinese government directed alone to foreigners. The native Chinese were prohibited from dealing in opium, under the penalty of death, and two of them who had been detected in smuggling, were executed in front of the foreign factories. Notwithstanding all these evidences of the determination of the Chinese government to put a stop to this traffic, it was still persevered in. On the 18th of March, 1839, Lin, the imperial commissioner, issued an edict, requiring all foreigners to deliver up the opium in their possession to the officers of government; and on the 27th, all the opium belonging to British subjects, amounting to 20,283 chests, and valued at ten millions of dollars, was surrendered by the owners to captain Elliott, superintendent of the trade of British subjects in China; it was afterwards destroyed by order of the Chinese authorities.

Although the property there destroyed was introduced into China contrary to its laws, the British government determined upon offensive measures, and their troops have invaded the territory of the Chinese, and attacked their cities, because the imperial government enforced its own laws—laws intended to abolish the most frightful form of intemperance.

RIVERS AND CANALS. China is noted for being the country where canal navigation was first introduced, and where it has been carried to the greatest extent. The general course of their rivers is from the west to east. The principal are the Yanktse, in the south, the length of which is about 2000 miles, and its breadth, two and a half; and the Yellow river in the north, somewhat longer. These rivers empty into the sea at the distance of 100 miles from each other, but in the interior are 1000 miles apart.

The principal canals pass in a notherly and southerly direction, between these rivers, forming lines of communication between their several branches. Some of the most extensive of these works are about 2000 years standing, dating their origin before the Christian era. The whole length of canal navigation in China, is estimated at 5000 miles. But whatever is said of dates and distances, and almost every thing relating to the interior of China, regarding former times, must be considered as in a degree conjectural. The Chinese, in speaking of their "celestial empire," are disposed to magnify. Notwithstanding

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the extent and antiquity of their canals, they have never understood the art of locking. Boats are passed from one level to another by means of inclined planes and rollers, over which they are drawn by men. One of these planes usually overcomes an ascent of about fifteen feet. The imperial canal and the continuation of the line of communication from Pekin to Canton, is the most important. Its whole length is variously stated from 1000 to 1500 miles.

That part of this line called the imperial canal, is 500 miles in length, commencing in the neighborhood of Pekin, and reaching the Yellow river. It is called the imperial canal, as being allowed to be navigated only by the emperor's boats, which are computed at 1000 in number, and of 100 tons each.

Between the Yellow river and Canton, the navigation is interrupted by a mountainous district, over which there is a portage. The Chinese not adopting the modern improved method of locking, is one among many striking proofs of what they suffer from ignorance, or prejudice against foreigners.

Another monument of Chinese labor is the great wall, commencing at the yellow sea, and extending across the northern border of China, a distance of 1500 miles. It traverses mountains and valleys, and by means of stupendous arches is carried across wide rivers. In its most exposed parts, it is double, and sometimes treble. The foundation and corners are of granite, but the principal part is of blue brick cemented with mortar. At distances of forty rods, square towers or bulwarks are erected. The object of this wall was to defend the northern border of China from the incursions of the Mongul Tartars. Its epoch is placed by some at 130 years before, and by others at 1160 after Christ, proving nothing but the great uncertainty of dates in the history of China.

NAVIGATION. The Chinese navigation equally shows the want of modern improvement. Their ships are enormous, ill shaped machines, some of them of a thousand tons burden. Both ends are greatly raised, presenting an extensive surface to the wind. More than one half of them are wrecked and lost. When once aground they cannot be raised. Their anchors are of wood, to which large stones are attached. Notwithstanding they daily witness in the port of Canton, the superiority of the iron anchor of the European, nothing can induce them to adopt the improvement.

They knew the properties of the magnetic needle, long before they were discovered by Europeans, but have never applied them to the purposes of navigation. They still regulate their voyages to Japan, Batavia, and the Moluccas, the extent of their navigation, by the stars, seldom venturing out of sight of land. The emperor's navy consists of the exact number of 999 vessels of all descriptions, formidable only in numbers. A

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squadron of a few European frigates would easily disperse the whole.

CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS. Constant labor is necessary for the poor of China, to obtain means to support life; they have neither time nor inclination to be cleanly, and are buried in filth. They consume any thing they can find, all sorts of animals, as well those which have died of poverty and disease as others. The rich are indolent, not giving themselves the trouble to eat without assistance; they are fed by slaves. Female beauty consists in small eyes and feet, protuberant lips, and long, lank, and black hair.

Great pains are taken to produce small feet, by keeping them tightly swathed in infancy, so that when grown, the women seem rather to totter than walk, the feet by no means answering the purpose for which nature designed them. Corpulence is the distinguishing trait of beauty in men as evidence of an easy and well fed life. Men of thin forms are considered as void of talent. In their public festivals, the display of fire works makes the most conspicuous figure. The Chinese are said to excel in them, but are always careful to have their exhibitions in broad day light, as if afraid that they could not be seen in the night.

PRINCIPAL CITIES. There are three principal cities in China, known to Europeans, Pekin, Nankin, and Canton. The first is in the north, latitude 40°. It is the imperial residence, and sixty miles distant from the nearest point of the great wall. The name Pekin or Peking, signifies the northern court, and is given in contradistinction to Nanking or Nankeen, the southern court. The emperor formerly resided in the latter city, but removed with his principal military establishment to the north, more effectually to repel the incursions of the Tartars. This capital is an exact square of twenty miles in circumference, and is divided into two sections, the Chinese and Tartar. The walls of the Tartar or outward city, are lofty, and so broad that twelve horsemen may ride abreast on them, having towers at intervals of a bow-shot, sufficiently large to contain bodies of reserve. The city has nine arched gates, well defended. Its population was estimated by a Jesuit missionary who resided there some time in the last century, at 16,000,000. This estimate has since been reduced to three, and probably the real number does not much exceed 1,000,000.

Nankin is situated in latitude 23° north, and about 500 miles south of Pekin. Its population is estimated at from one to three millions. It has lost much of its ancient splendor by the removal of the court, but is still considered as the first city in the empire for manufacturing. Its staples are silks, and the cotton goods bearing the name of the city.

Canton is situated in the southeastern quarter of the empire,

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in latitude 23°. The number of its inhabitants is estimated at 1,000,000. Considerable numbers live in junks on the river. As this is the only emporium for imports and exports for foreigners, for the whole empire, it is a place of great business and wealth. Five thousand vessels are said to be in the river at once; this, however, must include junks, boats, and small craft of every description. An American newspaper, called the Canton Register, and published twice a month, has lately been established in the city. Provisions, including various luxuries brought by foreign vessels, are cheap and abundant.

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CHAPTER IX.

Japan; extent and population of the islands. Character of the inhabitants. Discovery by Europeans. Trade. Burman Empire. Situation, extent, population and revenue. Manners and character of the inhabitants. Missionaries. Ava. Siam. Extent and population. Missionaries. Siamese Twins. Their birth, and how connected. Malacca; situation, extent, and population. Malays; their features and character. Plunder of American vessels. Central Asia; extent, character and manners of its inhabitants. Hospitality of the Kalmucks. Cashmere. Persia; ancient; modern. Ispahan. Religion. Zoroaster. Ormuzd and Ahriman. Literature. Language. Persian gulf. Trade. Caravans. Mesopotamia. Tigris and Euphrates. Eden. Babylon. Nineveh. Ararat. Damascus. Palestine. Jerusalem. Pilgrimages. Curiosities and relics sold to pilgrims. Condition of the Jews and Christians. Bethlehem. Nazareth. Capernaum. Jordan. The Dead sea. Joppa. Armenia. Arabia; situation, extent and population. Divisions. Yemen. Mocha. Red sea. Mount Sinai. Horeb. Mecca. Pilgrimages. Mount Ararat. Ceremonies of the pilgrims. Government, manners, customs, features, and dress of the Arabs. Women. Camels; their manner of rearing. The Arabian horse.

JAPAN. At the eastern extremity of Asia, between 31° and 49° north latitude, is situated the empire of Japan. It consists of three large islands, and a group of small ones. No one of the islands bears the name of Japan. They are separated from continental Asia, in several places, by narrow straits. Niphon, the largest, and one of the most southerly, is 700 miles long, and lies near the northeast coast of China. The superficial contents of all the islands, are 266,000 square miles. The number of inhabitants are variously estimated from 20,000,000 to 40,000,000. The capital, Jiddo, is on the island of Niphon, and has upwards of 1,000,000 of inhabitants. The knowledge which has been obtained of this country, is very imperfect, and its extent and population probably considerably exaggerated. The few Europeans who have visited the country, tell large stories without fear of contradiction.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Japan is ascertained to be a perfect Asiatic despotism, and in some particulars, carried to a greater extent than in other parts of Asia. The will of the

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emperor is the supreme and uncontrolled law for his subjects, and after him, the will of the petty princes, who in like manner govern the provinces. These subordinates, deriving their power from him, are allowed the privilege of making war upon each other, so that the people do not enjoy the ordinary benefit of a despotic government, that of internal tranquility.

The great body of the people are oppressed by poverty. The peasant is obliged to surrender half, and in some instances. two thirds of his earnings to his immediate landlord, together with such a portion to the governor of the province as he chooses to demand.

The police of Japan has this singular provision, that each one is a spy upon the conduct of his neighbor, and answerable for his crimes, so that every one is answerable to the state for those with whom he is connected, and must suffer with them for their offences. The father is accountable for his children; the master for his servants, and every society for all its members. The Japanese are characterized as active, cleanly, laborious, kind, cheerful, and contented, but sensual and revengeful. Their superstition is managed by a government of priests, opposed to all improvement and intelligence.

In religion, morals, language, and manners, the Japanese nearly resemble China, with whom they are more nearly connected than with any other nation, and to whom they have at times been tributary. They have little trade or connection with Europeans; the government seeks none, nor scarcely allows of any.

This region was first known to Europeans by means of three Portuguese ships, driven on to the coast by a storm in 1552. Portugal, then the most commercial and enterprising nation in Europe, immediately established a colony in the newly discovered country, and sent Jesuits to christianize its inhabitants. The conduct of the Portuguese colonists was licentious, proud, and imprudent, and the Dutch residents fostered the ill feeling of the natives towards the Portuguese, which the demeanor of the latter had engendered. After many persecutions, the Portuguese colonists, and their missionaries, in 1637, were banished forever from the empire.

The Japanese christians are exposed to severe persecutions, and the ports of the empire closed against all Europeans except the Dutch. The persecutions continued for forty years, and during this time, several millions of the inhabitants who had embraced christianity, were put to death. In 1665, inquisitorial tribunals were set up in the principal cities, the objects of which was to discover and punish catholics. The Dutch encouraged those religious prejudices, and converted them to their own profit, inducing the Japanese to believe that any Europeans, other than those of their own nation, were catholics or Jesuits. They are still the only European nation allowed to trade to

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Japan; and their trade is placed under severe restrictions. They are permitted to land only on a small island, where but about fifteen Dutch are allowed to have warehouses. This island is connected by a bridge, with a larger one, on which is a city of considerable trade. The commerce is carried on under a close inspection, no Dutchman being allowed to cross the bridge without attendants and interpreters. Two vessels only are employed in this trade. It is wholly carried on from the Dutch settlement at Batavia, to the island of Desima. The importation of all religious books is strictly prohibited; the vessels are carefully examined, and if they are found on board, they are taken away, and returned only when the vessel is on the point of sailing. The exportation of any books or charts, tending to give an account of the country, its inhabitants, or government, is prohibited with equal strictness. The Dutchmen intent on commercial gain rather than the propagation of their religion, or the acquisition of geographical information, are little disposed to violate these regulations.

Japan is supposed to have been peopled by emigrants from China. The juxta-position of the two nations, as well as the affinity between their manners, language and religion, corroborate the idea. Its government exceeds that of the parent state in the strictness with which it excludes modern inventions, foreign improvements, and every thing connected with Europe, and with which it conceals from foreigners all knowledge of its internal affairs, and the condition of the country. Like China, the condition of Japan has been stationary from the earliest period at which it became known to Europe.

Burman Empire. The Burman empire lies on the east of the bay of Bengal, and on the south of China, between latitude 9° and 26° north. Its length is 1000 miles, and breadth 700, and its population about 12,000,000. Its government, though despotic, is of a milder and more liberal cast than those of the other countries of eastern Asia. It encourages the increase of population and the arts, by favoring the settlement of foreigners. It has nothing of that jealousy towards them, and towards European improvements, so common to other eastern countries. Hence the Burman empire is progressing in the arts of civilization. The religion is of the idolatry of the lama; and of the sect called the budhites. It enjoins no sacrifice of human blood, and is tolerant. The Burmans have no secular clergy, but a species of priests resembling monks, dwelling in convents, and observing celibacy. They eat but once a day, and every carnal indulgence is punished by a disgraceful and public removal from office. They possess most of the learning of the country, and are highly esteemed for their piety. The liberality of the government in admitting foreigners, has given great encouragement to missionary exertions. Although the priests of budhism

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opposed the missionaries with great zeal, their efforts have been attended with much success, affording a fair prospect that a considerable portion of the country may be redeemed from idolatry.

MANNERS. The Burman Empire, situated between China and the British East Indies, has been subject to frequent wars with both, and in its struggles to maintain a national independence, has acquired a warlike character. The Burmans differ both in their physical and moral character from their Hindoo neighbors. The men are not tall, but muscular and active. They pluck their beards when young, which gives them a feminine and youthful appearance. The women are fairer than those of the Hindoos, but less delicately formed. Both men and women color their teeth and eyelids black. They are less delicate and cleanly in their eating, than the Hindoos. They kill no domestic animals, that being prohibited by their religion, but make abundant use of game, and devour all sorts of reptiles. They are characterized as lively, impatient, active and irascible, possessing none of the habitual indolence of the native Hindoo; and as being free from that gloomy jealousy which prompts so many eastern nations to immure their females in the solitude of the harem. The sexes have free social intercourse, as in Europe. But women do not sustain the same rank in society. They are considered as an inferior order of beings, and are often sold or lent to strangers. Poligamy is prohibited, but concubinage allowed without limitation. The Burmans are indulgent and civil to strangers, receiving them in a sitting posture, as being the most respectful.

The king claims one tenth of all the produce of the lands, and of all imports the revenue is mostly collected in kind, and distributed in that form to the officers of the government, instead of salaries. Money, except on the most pressing occasions, is never disbursed from the royal treasury. Hoarding silver and gold to the greatest possible extent, in Burmah, as in most oriental countries, is a permanent state policy.

Ava was formerly the capital of the Burman empire, but is now in ruins. It was a protestant missionary station as early as 1810. Another city has been built four miles distant from ancient Ava, on the borders of an extensive lake. The modern capital contains about 200,000 inhabitants.

SIAM. Burmah is surrounded by a number of smaller states, more or less independent; some of them tributary to China; some of the Burman empire; and some to neither. With few distinguishing traits, they resemble the Burmans, in manners, customs, morals, religion and government. With these nations, neither Europeans nor Americans have any considerable intercourse. The most important of these states, and the one

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most known to Americans, is the kingdom of Siam. This nation, embracing several tributary states, is situated on the eastern peninsula of Asia, between latitude 5° and 21° north. Its geographical extent is computed at 200,000 square miles, and its population at something less than 3,000,000. Siam is one of the most civilized nations inhabiting the tropical regions beyond Indostan, and south of China. In stature, the inhabitants are shorter than the Europeans, their average height being about five feet three inches. Their complexion is a light brown. In the useful arts they have made no greater progress than their neighbors.

Their alphabet consists of thirty-eight consonants, and numerous vowels and diphthongs, is destitute of inflections, or auxiliaries. Its construction depends upon juxta-position, and it is written from right to left. Their government, religion, manners, and morals, are like the Burmans, to whom they have at times been subject. Like them, they have freely admitted Christian missionaries, who have formed several stations in the country, and are making considerable progress in the introduction of Christianity.

Houses in Siam.

Bankok, the capital, is situated on the river Meinam; many of the houses are built on piers in the river, and are chiefly inhabited by Chinese.

SIAMESE TWINS. Siam is noted as being the country of the birth of the Siamese twins; one of the most extraordinary productions of nature. They were born in May, 1811, of Chinese parents, at a small village called Mackling, on the coast of Siam. Their birth was attended with no extraordinary difficulty or danger. Their bodies are united by a strong band or umbilical cord, proceeding from the breast bone of each. This cord or band is two inches long at the upper end, and five at the lower;

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its thickness is two inches, and its breadth from above downwards, is four inches.

They feel hunger and thirst at the same time. The quantity and quality of food required by each, is alike, and is taken at the same time. What one takes, does not appear to nourish, or to have any effect upon the other. They are five feet two inches high, the common height of the Siamese at their age. They are well made, and muscular, enjoy good health, and have been known to carry a weight of 280 pounds. They were brought to America from Siam, by captain Coffin, of the ship Sachem, and have been extensively exhibited as curiosities in America and Europe. Much speculation has been had upon the possibility of separating them with safety; there are different opinions among medical gentlemen upon the subject; the prevailing one is, that it cannot be done but at the hazard of their lives.

MALACCA. The southern extremity of this peninsula is called Malacca, and together with the neighboring islands of Borneo, Sumatra and others, is inhabited by a race called Malays, a people of eastern Asia, who have the religion, language, and manners, of the Arabians of the west, and have intermarried, and otherwise so connected themselves, as to have become separated from their original stock, and to have formed a distinct nation. They first settled in Malacca, and their sultans afterwards extended their conquests over the neighboring islands. The peninsula is 800 miles in length, and has an average breadth of 100. The capital, Malacca, is on the western coast, in latitude 2° north.

The Malays of Malacca are now divided into several tribes, without any general head. Nothing approaching to accuracy is known as to their number, neither Europeans nor Americans having any considerable intercourse with them; it may be from one to three millions. The Malays of the continent and islands are of a dark brown color, their hair long, black, and shining, the nose large and flat, their eyes brilliant, and full of fire. They are strongly built and nervous. Impetuosity, bordering on fury, treachery, impatience of control, love of plunder, and blood, characterize this people. They profess the Mahometan religion, are fond of navigation, of war, and all daring enterprizes.

Their treaties and promises of friendship are regarded no longer than their interests or their fears demand. They are always armed, and generally engaged either in war among themselves, or in plundering expeditions. When an opportunity presents, they attack European or American vessels, and if successful, murder the crews, and plunder and sink the vessel. They are active only when engaged in war and robbery. At home they are indolent, having all their labor performed by

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slaves, and despising agriculture and honest means of subsistence. They constitute a nation of pirates of a most sanguinary and barbarous character.

In 1831, the Malays of Sumatra boarded an American vessel under the pretence of trade, captured the ship, and murdered the crew. On receiving intelligence of this transaction, the government sent the frigate Potomac into those seas, to seek redress, and punish the aggressors. No redress or remuneration could be obtained; and the captain inflicted exemplary punishment on the village and neighborhood, from whence it was supposed that the pirates proceeded. This had the effect, for some time, of checking their piracies. But the naval force being withdrawn, they have been renewed. The American ship Matilda, captain Livingston, in those seas, was boarded, the captain and six of the crew murdered, and a large sum in specie taken, and the vessel sunk. The character of the Malays, and the frequent instances of their piracies, show that the seas in their neighborhood cannot be navigated with any degree of safety, but by vessels well armed, and protected by a government force in the vicinity.

CENTRAL ASIA. A large region called Central Asia, extends westward from China to the borders of Turkey, and is inhabited for the most part by numerous tribes of Kalmucks, Tartars, and Thibetians, principally *Nomades*, or wanderers, without any fixed habitations. These people dwell in temporary huts or tents, moving from place to place, as they can find pasturage; depending upon their flocks, and upon plunder for subsistence. Many of the tribes are little else than bands of robbers, associated for the purpose of plundering caravans, and making inroads upon the neighboring settled countries. They possess and carefully train up a species of horses of remarkable fleetness, adapted to such purposes. In their predatory incursions upon the settlements, each usually takes a spare horse with which to bring off their plunder, and such of the inhabitants as they choose to make slaves. The inhabitants of this region are not all of this character; and even the robbers possess some redeeming qualities. They treat their slaves with lenity, making little difference between them and their own people.

The Kalmucks, in some places, show extraordinary instances of hospitality. When a stranger arrives among them, whom from his poverty or other circumstances they do not wish to rob they treat him with great kindness, leaving him at his choice to select the person with whom he wishes to lodge. The person on whom the choice falls considers it a favor, gives up his house, wife, and family, to his guest, and invests him for the time with all the prerogatives of master. He then goes through the village in quest of every thing which can contribute to the comfort or amusement of the stranger. Every one is ambitious to add

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something to his stock. They regard this as a precept of their religion, and believe that if they neglect it they will bring the curse of sterility upon their lands. They take the liberty, however, of determining on whom they are called upon to bestow this hospitality. After treating one stranger with this extraordinary kindness, the next may be plundered and condemned to slavery.

The characteristic features of the Kalmuck countenance are, that the angle of the eye is directed obliquely downwards to the nose; the eyebrows black and thin; the nose broad and flattened at the end; the cheek bones prominent, and the face and head round. Their skin, naturally white, assumes a brownish yellow from exposure to the solar rays in summer, and to the smoke of their cabins in winter.

The Kalmucks have three distinct orders or castes below their chief. The first are the nobility or white bones; the second the slaves or peasantry, called black bones; and the third the clergy, descended from both. The noble ladies are called white flesh, and those of an inferior order black flesh. The designation of castes is computed from the male side or bones. The people are in complete subjection to their priests, to whom they commit the direction of their affairs. Nothing of importance is undertaken without consulting a juggler or priest, who pretends to consult the gods by means of sorceries. The priests levy contributions at their pleasure on the flocks of their adherents, and live in a style of luxury such as the country affords.

The bordering governments of China, Turkey, and Russia, exercise a kind of partial authority over different portions of this territory, without any definite limits. It consists of little more than collecting a tribute where there is ability to pay. The different tribes are essentially independent.

CASHMERE. Cashmere, to the southwest of China, is one of the most considerable portions of Central Asia. Its inhabitants by no means fall under the description of the Nomade tribes to the north of them. It is a celebrated valley, estimated to contain 17,000 square miles, and 2,000,000 of inhabitants, and surrounded by stupendous mountains. Seven different passes or openings in the mountains lead into this valley. Its climate is mild and moderate; its soil, watered by numerous streams from the surrounding mountains, abounds in the finest productions, insomuch that it is called "the paradise of Asia, and the garden of eternal spring." This valley, formerly little known to western Europe, is famous for the production of the Cashmere shawl.

ANCIENT PERSIA. The oldest nation of which we have any authentic records, aside from the Mosaic history, is Persia; embracing under that name, at different periods, very different portions of territory. China, and Hindoostan, indeed, carry

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their traditions back, far beyond the period, assigned by Moses for the creation of the world. So many evident marks of fable attend these traditions, that they gain little credit beyond the places where they originate. Persia, as connected with Media, of which it was the superior kingdom, is spoken of in the book of Esther, and of those of the prophets, upwards of 500 years before the Christian era, as a great, flourishing, and powerful empire.

MODERN. Modern Persia is but the feeble remnant of the ancient. It is bounded north by Russia and the Caspian sea, west by Turkey, south by the Persian gulf, and east by two independent States, formerly constituting the eastern division of the empire. It lies between 25° and 40° north latitude, and is estimated to contain 400,000 square miles, and 7,000,000 of inhabitants.

The central region of Persia is an elevated plain, containing several deserts of sand. On the north is a chain of mountains called Ararat; on one of the highest summits of which is said

Street Mosque and Bazaar in Ispahan.

to be the place where Noah's ark rested. Search has been made for fragments of that celebrated ship; and as travellers in distant regions seldom fail of finding what they are in pursuit of, some of its relics have been brought to Europe. What they

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were, or from whence they came, is, however, matter of conjecture, as is, also, whether the present mount Ararat is the one mentioned in the Mosaic account of the deluge.

The Persians are Mahometans, of the sect called Ali. Another sect worship the cross, have a sort of baptism, and call themselves the disciples of St. John, evidently showing some knowledge of the Christian system.

Ispahan, the former capital of Persia, was once distinguished for its wealth, and the splendor of its public buildings, it still retains marks of its former grandeur, and is celebrated for the magnificence of its mosques. The population is estimated at 200,000. It is still the principal city, though the residence of the Shah has been removed to Tehiran.

The government of Persia is an absolute despotism in the Asiatic sense of the term. The Shah, or prince, has the absolute control of the destinies of his subjects.

The Mahometanism of Persia is engrafted on the paganism of Zoroaster, who lived about 600 years before Christ, and near the period of the first Cyrus. Its principal doctrines are,

That from eternity there had existed two beings, Ormuzd and Ahriman, constituting the principle of the universe. The first is pure, eternal light, and the original source of all perfection. The nature of the other is also light, and so far good, but because Ahriman envied the greater light of Ormuzd, his own became obscure, and he became an enemy to all good, and the author of evil, and of all bad beings who join with him in opposition to the good. Both of these gods performed the work of creation, but at different times. One or the other of them brought into existence every variety of being throughout the universe. Ormuzd created by his living word, that is, by the power of his will, the whole community of good spirits, in the following order:

First, six immortal spirits of light, for the immediate service of his throne. Secondly, twenty-eight subordinate spirits, representatives of months and days; and lastly, a multitude of human souls.

Ahriman produced a number of bad spirits; to wit, six arch devs, principal spirits of darkness, and a multitude of devs of lower rank. The good dwell with Ormuzd, in light, and Ahriman dwells with the beings which he created, in the kingdom of darkness.

Time is divided into four periods of 3000 years each. The first period Ormuzd rulled alone. In the second he created material beings in their various degrees, and at last man. After this labor he rested, and celebrated the first festival of creation with his good spirits, and reigned in a world of innocence and happiness, until the commencement of the third period. Then begins a contest between light and darkness, Ormuzd and Ahri-

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man, who in a continual struggle, divide the dominion of the world.

In the last period, the power of Ahriman is at first enlarged and confirmed. It then declines, his devs sink to nothing, and he finally does homage to Ormuzd. The bad disappear, with all evil; the dead arise, and the primitive kingdom of happy souls returns.

In this drama, the twelve signs of the zodiac are made to play their part; to each is assigned a thousand years. The number seven, as presented in the first six good spirits with Ormuzd, and the six arch devs, with Ahriman, represents the supposed number of planets. The subordinate genii of the material world, are the personified parts and elements of nature. The spirit of men pass through a state of happiness before they reach the human body, and in that heavenly state, contend with bad spirits, protect the good upon earth, and are reverenced by them.

Men themselves are either the servants of Ormuzd, governed by wisdom and virtue, or the slaves of Ahriman, the subjects of folly and vice. The former, at death, pass over the bridge Shinevad, into the dwellings of the happy; and the latter fall into hell. Ahriman will finally be conquered, the resurrection of the dead will follow, and the earth be renewed, and prepared for the abode of the virtuous.

Divination, soothsaying, astrology, poetry, the study of the Koran, a sort of ethics or moral philosophy, and medicine, constitute the chief departments of a Persian literary education.

LITERATURE AND LANGUAGE. The language is considered the most perfect of the Asiatic; and is in Asia what the French is in Europe, the principal medium of intercourse, and of recording, and communicating discoveries and events.

PERSIAN GULF. The Persian gulf extends up in the country between Arabia and Persia, from the Indian ocean, 500 miles, and has a medium breadth, along the southwestern border of Persia, of about 150 miles. It affords great facilities for navigation, which are not improved except by foreigners. The Persians have neither a navy, nor any thing which can be called a commercial marine. Excepting the trade which is managed by foreigners, through the Persian gulf, the commerce of Persia is carried on by means of caravans to India, Turkey, and Arabia.

CARAVANS. A considerable portion of the territory of Persia is a desert of sand, and uninhabitable. Over a part of this desert, the caravans which transport goods between Bagdad and Aleppo, necessarily pass. Two species of danger attend this route, robbery from the Bedouin Arabs, and want of water. They usually secure themselves from the first, by a tribute to

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some principal tribe, which claims to be lord of the desert, and who on receiving the tribute, profess to act as their protectors. But notwithstanding all these precautions, they sometimes suffer severely from the want of water, and many have perished from this cause.

MESOPOTAMIA. The two celebrated rivers of antiquity, the Euphrates, and the Tigris, or the Hiddekil of the Bible, have their rise in the mountains of Ararat, within fifteen miles of each other, and pursuing a southerly course, but considerably divergent, encircles a large territory, known in ancient history by the name of Mesopotamia, or the country between the rivers. They unite at Coma, 130 miles above the mouth of the confluent stream, and assuming a new name, enter the Persian gulf, 70 miles below Bassora. The whole length of the Euphrates is 1500 miles. It is navigable for large ships to Bassora.

Mesopotamia now constitutes the Turkish province of Armenia. It is fixed upon as being the Eden of Mosaic history, the birth place of creation, and containing the site of the garden in which the first pair of the human family were placed; and where the first sin was committed, supposed to be the parent of all others, and of all human woe. These conjectures may stand for truth, as they cannot be contradicted, or more plausible ones substituted in their place. Certain it is, that the changes produced by the deluge, by lapse of time, and various other causes, baffle all attempts to fix, with any degree of certainty upon any of the places referred to by Moses, before the flood.

BABYLON AND NINEVEH. It is with a greater degree of certainty that the site of the city of Babylon, the pride of ancient times, is fixed on the Euphrates; though it is difficult to discover remnants sufficient to designate the particular spot. Ancient Nineveh is supposed to have been built upon the east bank of the Tigris, opposite the present Turkish city of Mosul. The few remains, however, of this celebrated city, now to be found, leave it as a matter of some uncertainty. As the Tigris and the Euphrates approach each other at Bagdad, where they are not more than twenty miles apart, the desert passes into an immense meadow, which only requires irrigation and good cultivation, to produce abundant crops. Bagdad, one of the principal cities of the Ottoman empire in Asia, is situated on the Tigris, in latitude 33° north, 500 miles east of Damascus, and contains 80,000 inhabitants.

The present condition of Mesopotamia is but a shadow of its former greatness. Its whole population is less than a million, and less than either of those ancient cities. It is of three descriptions; agriculturists, who not knowing whether they shall enjoy the fruits of their labor, carry on only a miserable tillage, sufficient to produce a scanty supply for their immediate wants;

wandering shepherds, dwelling in huts and tents, who with their flocks migrate from place to place in search of pasturage; and robbers, whose strong holds are in the mountains, from whence they infest the neighboring plains.

AFGHANISTAN. In the year 1747, the eastern and southeastern provinces of Persia separated from the western, and formed an independent kingdom; though more extensive, and twice as numerous as the other, it left the name of Persia to the western section, and assumed the name of Afghanistan, from a tribe of mountain robbers, who overrun the country. This territory, bordering on the peninsula of Indostan, or India, within (south of) the Ganges, contains 350,000 square miles, and 14,000,000 of inhabitants; nearly one half of its population are Hindoos. In government, manners, morals, and religion, they resemble the Persians, with few distinguishing traits. In January, 1842, six thousand British troops were surrounded and massacred by an Afghanistan force, only one officer escaping, who brought the tragic news to the nearest fortress in the hands of his countrymen.

SYRIA. The country bordering on the Mediterranean, lying north of Arabia and west of Persia, forms a great Turkish province under the name of Syria. It contains 50,000 square miles, and 2,400,000 inhabitants, and is divided into four pachalics, Aleppo, Tripoli, Damascus, and Acre. It has three distinct climates. The summit of mount Lebanon, covered with snow, diffuses a salubrious coolness through the interior. The maratime border is low, and exposed to heat and humidity. And the plains joining the Arabian deserts are scorched with heat. The seasons and productions vary with the climate.

If the advantages of nature were duly seconded by human art and industry, Syria, in the compass of eighty miles, would produce the vegetable riches of distant countries in great abundance. But its industry and enterprize are paralyzed by the unhappy condition of the country. The agriculturist is pillaged by the authorized robberies of the Turkish governors, and the predatory attacks of the Bedouins. Art and industry, languish; commerce, exposed to arbitrary vexation, is limited to small, timid bargains, or confined to the risk of caravans. Such is the present unhappy condition of a country rich in its soil, characterized in ancient times as a land flowing with milk and honey, and from its local situation, possessing almost unequalled advantages for commerce.

The inhabitants of this territory are a singular mixture of various nations. The country having been successively overrun by the Persians, Greeks, Turks, Arabs, and crusaders from the west of Europe, its population is a compound from nations of different religions, manners, morals, and governments. The original inhabitants mixed with the Greeks, form a small pro-

portion. All civil and military employments are in the hands of the Turks. A considerable number of Arabs inhabit the country, some as cultivators, and some as Bedouin robbers, especially on the borders of Arabia. In the northern parts are numerous hordes of Turkomens and Koods. The Druses and Maronites constitute another considerable portion of the population.

PALESTINE. The pachalic of Damascus embraces palestine, or the holy land, anciently the land of Canaan, or Judea. It borders on the Mediterranean west, and is situated between latitude 31° and 34° north, and 34° and 39° longitude, east from London, being something more than 200 miles square. The pachalic of Damascus is carved out of the Turkish conquest in western Asia, without any reference to its ancient divisions.

This province having a mild climate, a productive soil, and good harbors, was formerly every thing which industry and wealth could make it. It now presents but a faint shadow of its former greatness; and is worthy of particular notice only for what it has been. Jerusalem is situated in the northwestern section of Judea, or Palestine proper, on the western declivity of a hill, surrounded by rocks and deep valleys, in latitude 32° north, forty-five miles from the nearest point on the Mediterranean. Its environs are mountainous and barren.

The present city is about two miles in circumference, surrounded by high walls. It contains 25,000 inhabitants; one half of which are Mahometans, 4000 Jews, and the residue principally Christians. The Jews and Christians are treated with like contempt by the Turks, and compelled to wear a blue turban to distinguish them. The women wear close veils and white dresses. The streets are unpaved, and filled with clouds of dust, or with mire. Nothing is to be seen in the streets but insolent Turks, stupid and melancholy Christians, or veiled figures of women.

Jerusalem is governed by a Turk, under the pacha of Damascus. There is also a cadi, or supreme judge, a commander of the citadel, and a mufti, to preside over the ceremonies of the Mahometan religion. There are sixty-two Christian convents, the largest of which belongs to the Christians of Armenia. The Franciscan monastery is the principal one of the catholics. The church of the holy sepulchre is the object of attention to Christian visitors. It was built in the fourth century, by the empress Helena, the mother of Constantine the great, and is composed of several large buildings erected on Golgotha. The visitor is here shown, in a large subterranean apartment, richly ornamented, the tomb of Jesus, with a coffin of white marble, in which he was laid, and any other thing relating to his burial which he may wish to see.

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PILGRIMAGES. Christian pilgrimages to Jerusalem, though not so numerous as formerly, are still considerable. The ignorant and credulous people of Asia, of every religion are taught by their priests, that a pilgrimage to some holy place of their religion, if not absolutely necessary, is highly important to their salvation. Hence millions have been led to Jerusalem, to Mecca, to the Lama, and to the idol Juggernaut, to perfect themselves in their several professions. They return possessed, in their own view, of a superior degree of sanctity, and with better hopes of heaven.

The deception may be a harmless one, so far as regards the community, except insomuch as it leads the subject to despise and neglect the ordinary duties of life. The Christian pilgrims and visitors to Jerusalem, are one of the chief means of support to its stationary inhabitants. At Easter they sometimes assemble to the number of five or six thousand, to celebrate the death and resurrection of Christ. Relics of every description which the pilgrims want, are manufactured in the city and vicinity; and furnished at various prices. This tax on their credulity is cheerfully paid.

On the mount of Olives is a Christian church, in which the visitor is shown the foot-print of the Saviour, the last which he made when he ascended into heaven. No vestige of Solomon's temple is to be seen, but the traveller is informed that the emperor Julian, called the apostate, in the fourth century, for the purpose of falsifying the prediction of Christ respecting the temple, permitted and encouraged the Jews to commence its re-erection, and they were prevented by the breaking out of subterraneous fires. He is shown the precise spot where this event took place.

The Jews live in poverty, and are confined to a small quarter in their ancient city. The temple of Mahomet is a magnificent structure; no Christian or Jew is allowed to enter its inner apartments. The Mahometans are there shown the footsteps of their prophet, surrounded by a golden grate, and a sacred Koran, of extraordinary size.

BETHLEHEM. Five miles south of Jerusalem is the village of Bethlehem. It is situated at the foot of a hill covered with vines and olives. It contains 300 houses, and 2400 inhabitants, principally Greek and Armenian Christians. Their chief employment is making rosaries and crucifixes, inlaid with mother of pearl, and relics of every description, for pilgrims. The great ornament of the place is a stately church, built by the empress Helena, over the spot where Jesus was born. It is in the form of a cross. In a grotto, furnished with silver and crystal lamps, is shown a large marble trough, as being the manger in which Christ was laid.

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NAZARETH. Fifty miles north of Jerusalem, is the village of Nazareth, having at present a population of 2000, principally Christians. Here also is to be found much to satisfy the anxious pilgrim. He is shown the church attached to a convent of monks, and built, as they say, over a cave which was the residence of the Virgin Mary at the time of the conception. Wonderful powers are ascribed to this building: when a plague or epidemical sickness rages in the neighborhood, the sick are brought here, that they may rub themselves against the pillars of this church, believing it to be an efficacious remedy. The monks show the workshop of Joseph, where Jesus learned the trade of a carpenter, and spent the greater part of the first thirty years of his life. They also show the precipice where Jesus is said to have saved himself from the fury of the multitude. But the most venerated object is the table of stone on which Christ ate, before and after his resurrection.

CAPERNAUM. Capernaum, Cana of Galilee, and every other place mentioned as the scene of Christ's works, is distinctly pointed out to the pious traveller, and he and the inhabitant, his guide, part mutually satisfied; the one with the wonders he has seen, and the precious relics he has obtained, and the other with the money he has exacted from the credulity of his visitor.

JORDAN. Jordan is the only considerable river of Palestine. It rises at the foot of mount Libanus, in Syria, and pursuing a southerly course, widens into the lake of Genasereth, or sea of Tiberias or Galilee, as the same body of water is indifferently called. This lake forty-five miles north of Jerusalem, is seventeen miles long and six broad, and is formed by the waters of the Jordan, confined in a deep valley, environed by lofty eminences. The waters are pleasant and transparent. The particular spots where Christ called Peter and James from their fishing to be his disciples, where the miraculous draught of fishes was made, and where Christ walked upon the water, together with various other events recorded in his life as having taken place in the neighborhood, are distinctly pointed out. Pursuing still a southerly course, and receiving the brook Kedron, and several other small streams, the Jordan passes into the plains of Jericho, and after a course of about 150 miles, loses itself in the lake of Asphaltitee, or Dead Sea. This lake, seventy miles long and ten broad, is situated in the southeastern section of Palestine. Several other streams flow into it, but it has no outlet; copious evaporations, caused, as is supposed, by subterraneous heat, supply the place of one. The water is clear and highly impregnated with salt. Its specific gravity is greater than any other known. The proportion of salt to that of water is found to be from twenty-five to fifty per cent. The asphaltum, or bitumen, a mineral pitch, rises from the bottom of the lake, and is con-

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densed on the surface of the water. Another species of bitumen is found on the shore. The asphaltum is used for the various purposes of embalming, caulking, sculpture and coloring, and forms an important article of commerce. The country around is dreary, and the exhalations from the lake unhealthy and unpleasant to strangers. The few inhabitants in the neighborhood are not conscious of, and do not admit, its unhealthiness. They gain a subsistence by gathering the salts and bitumen. The stories of birds falling dead by means of its vapor, in attempting to fly over the lake are fabulous.

Antiquarians, with an assurance arising from the impossibility of contradiction, represent that the site of the Dead sea was formerly a fertile valley, resting partly on a mass of subterranean water, and partly on a stratum of bitumen; that lightning, or a miraculous fire from heaven, kindled the combustible matter; that the ground sank into the abyss beneath, and that Sodom and Gomorrah, and other cities built, as they suppose, on this plain, and of a bituminous stone, were consumed in the conflagration. It is needless to remark, that this hypothesis is conjectural, resting on no authentic historical facts, or natural appearances.

Damascus, the capital of this pachalic, is situated in a fertile plain, in latitude 38° north. It contains a mixed population of Turks, Armenians, Catholics, and Jews, estimated at 250,000. It is the principal city from which trade is carried on by caravans into the interior of Turkey, and to Arabia and Persia. Three caravans, each accompanied by 2500 armed men, go thrice a year to Bagdad, the journey occupying thirty days.

JAFFA. The principal seaport of Palestine is Jaffa, forty-five miles northwest of Jerusalem, in latitude 32° 30′ north. It stands on the site of Joppa, one of the earliest and most celebrated commercial cities of antiquity. The present city is but a faint shadow of the former. It is built on a tongue of land, extending some distance into the Mediterranean, and is the principal landing place for travellers to Jerusalem. It derives some historical importance from two circumstances in the life of Napoleon, which took place in its vicinity. One, the bold exposure of his life in visiting the hospitals where his soldiers lay sick, and dying with the plague, administering to their wants, and fearlessly handling their poisonous sores, to give courage to those who were well. The other is of a different character, called the massacre of Jaffa. In 1799, this place contained a garrison of Turkish soldiers, in the employment of Jessar Pacha, of Damascus. It was attacked by Bonaparte in person; having made a breach in the walls, an officer was sent to demand its surrender. The Turkish commander replied to the summons by cutting off the head of the messenger. The place was taken and given up to pillage. Three thousand men were made pris-

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oners, the greater part of whom had before been taken and paroled on condition of not again serving against the French. These men were shot by order of Bonaparte, in pursuance of the opinion of a council of his officers, that the above circumstances took them out of the ordinary case of prisoners of war. On his leaving Jaffa, a considerable number of his men were infected with the plague; their case was hopeless; they could not be removed; their deaths were hastened by administering to them large quantities of opium. This he said was more humane towards them, than leaving them in the hands of the Turks.

ARMENIA. Armenia is an extensive country of western Asia, principally subject to the Ottoman empire, a small portion of it only belongs to Persia. It contains 100,000 square miles, and about 2,000,000 inhabitants. It is noted for furnishing a large number of emigrating merchants, who to a considerable extent, carry on the commerce of the neighboring nations. Its inhabitants are principally christians, and possess a greater degree of civilization, intelligence, and enterprize, than any other people of Asia. This is attributed to the early introduction and continuance of christianity among them. Armenia is also noted for being the theatre of some of the earliest and most perplexing theological controversies, and of violent persecutions.

ARABIA. Arabia is a peninsula in the western section of Asia, lying between the Red sea and the Persian gulf, between 12° and 30° north latitude, and separated from Palestine by a great desert on its northern border. Its superficial contents are estimated at 1,000,000 of square miles, and the number of inhabitants at 12,000,000. These estimates are necessarily conjectural, and probably something too large. The same tribe of Bedouins, appearing at different times in different parts of the desert, are sometimes included twice in the same estimate. The roaming character of this people admit of less accuracy in the estimation of their numbers than most other nations.

Formerly, geographers divided Arabia into three sections, according to the supposed nature of its soil: Deserta, the barren, Petrea, the stony, and Felix, the happy, or productive. In later periods, this division has been exploded, and a more natural one substituted; that which distinguishes its coast from the interior. The former producing aloes, frankincense, myrrh, nutmegs, and coffee, and inhabited by a comparatively civilized and industrious people; and the latter consisting chiefly of a desert of moving sand, producing little else but thorns, thistles, and saline herbs, and inhabited by wandering tribes whose business is war, and whose subsistence is plunder.

YEMEN. The province of Yemen embraces a great portion of the fertile region; and though containing but about one

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fifteenth part of the territory, has one quarter of the inhabitants. It is the original country of the coffee tree, and now produces the best which is known. The best coffee is exported from

Mocha.

Mocha, a seaport of Yemen, on the Red sea, and bears the name of that port. Arabia produces 14,000,000 of pounds for exportation. The Turks and Arabians, who use it in great quantities give it a high flavor. They roast and pound it just before using it, and boil it but a short time, making it rather an infusion than a decoction. The Turks drink coffee, and present it to their visitors at all times of the day. The happiness of a rich mussulman consists in sitting at his ease, on a carpet, chewing opium, drinking coffee, and smoking tobacco. Travellers relate instances of one person drinking sixty cups of coffee, and smoking as many pipes of tobacco in a day, without injury.

From Arabia, the coffee shrub has been transplanted into every country where the soil and climate will admit of its cultivation. The island of Java, in the East Indies, Brazil, in South America, St. Domingo, and other West India islands, produce it in great abundance.

Red Sea. Arabia is an interesting country to Christians, Jews, and Mahometans, who, differing in almost every thing else, agree in a religious veneration for certain portions of this country.

On its southwestern border is the Red Sea, extending from the isthmus of Suez to the straits of Babelmandel, (the gate of misfortune, or the strait of shipwreck,) so called on account of its hazardous navigation. The distance is 1400 miles, and its

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greatest breadth 200. It takes its name, not from the color of its waters or the complexion of its shores, as has been commonly supposed, but from a king, called by the Grecians, Erythros, signifying red. Translators mistaking the object, gave to the term its literal meaning, and called the waters the Red sea. Near the northern termination of this sea, is shown the place where the waters were divided to afford a passage for the children of Israel.

One hundred miles easterly of this place, in the heart of a vast desert, is mount Sinai. The few inhabited spots in this desert are tenanted by wandering Arabs, who subsist by plunder, and render all travelling through it dangerous, except in large and well defended caravans. This desert is the region in which the children of Israel sojourned, and wandered about in every direction, for the space of forty years, in their passage from Egypt to Canaan. At the foot of Mount Sinai is the Greek convent of the monks of St. Catharine, founded in 1331. It has ever since afforded a hospitium to pilgrims visiting the mount. The monks live in constant fear from the surrounding Arabs, and nothing but their poverty saves them from pillage. Not far from Sinai and on the same ridge, is Horeb, where the monks show the rock from which water flowed at the command of Moses for the relief of the Israelites.

The dangers attending a visit to these celebrated places, together with the decreasing veneration for pilgrimages, have rendered such visits unfrequent. Pilgrims must seek Arabs for guides and protectors; and if they are so fortunate as to escape murder and robbery from other Arabs, they are sure of being fleeced by their conductors, on their separation.

PILGRIMAGES. The Mahometan pilgrims who visit Mecca and Medina enjoy greater facilities. The Arabs acknowledge a kind of subjection to, and stand in fear of the Ottoman power; and while they are encouraged in robbing Christians and Jews, are prohibited from disturbing the pilgrimages of Mussulmen, and when detected and taken, are severely punished. Numerous caravans, as well for commercial as religious purposes, pass from Damascus, and other places of the Ottoman empire, to Mecca.

This city is in latitude 21° north, fifty miles east of Judda, its nearest port on the Red sea. It formerly contained 100,000 inhabitants. It now has a stationary population of 30,000, with accommodations for an equal number of pilgrims. It is situated in a narrow valley inclosed by mountains, in a dry, barren, and rocky country. Its waters are brackish, provisions scarce, and every thing unfavorable to the support of a large population. The city contains the three most holy things of the Mahometan faith; the well zemyem, believed to be the identical spring which gushed forth in the wilderness for the relief of Hagar and

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Ishmael,—its waters purify from sin, give health to the sick, and impart strength to the memory; the Kaaba, a small temple held in peculiar veneration, as being built by Abraham and Ishmael; and the black stone set in the wall of this temple, about four feet from the ground, and surrounded with silver. This stone is the point to which the Mahometan turns his face in prayer; the pilgrims kiss it seven times before they enter the temple.

MOUNT ARAFAT. Near Mecca is a mountain called Arafat, the place where, according to the Mahometan faith, Adam first received Eve, after their expulsion from paradise, and after they had been separated 120 years, as a punishment for their first transgression. On the top of the mountain is a temple of which Adam is said to be the builder. A visit, and the performance of certain ceremonies at this mountain, constitute a part of the pilgrimage to Mecca. The hill itself not being large enough to contain all the devotees who visit it, the sacred limits are extended some distance around its base, and are marked out by stones. Buckhardt, a celebrated traveller, visited this place in July, 1814. He estimated the number of pilgrims then collected there, at 70,000. Their camp covered a space of three miles in length, and one in breadth, containing 300 tents, and 25,000 camels. Among this assemblage he found forty different languages.

The hill itself, dignified by the name of mountain, is about 200 feet high. The principal ceremony consists in hearing a sermon delivered from Adam's temple. Not more than a twentieth part of the people can hear it, and not more than a tenth of these understand the language in which it is delivered. An attendance at any place within the sacred limits, answers the requirements of the Koran.

This ceremony being concluded, the pilgrims set out on their return to Mecca. Passing through the valley of Muna, they halt, and spend some time in stoning the devil. This ceremony consists in each pilgrim performing seven times nine ejaculations, or throwing sixty-three stones at two small pillars set up at each end of the valley. Six or eight thousand sheep and goats are then sacrificed; and the third day brings the multitude back to Mecca. A few other ceremonies are there performed, and the caravans then leave the holy city.

One pilgrimage to Mecca is enjoined by the Koran. But it may, for special reasons, be performed by deputy; this privilege, now frequently granted, is obtained only by liberal presents. The mussulman who has performed all the ceremonies of a pilgrimage to Mecca, becomes a hadjy, or saint, and has a place secured to him in paradise.

MEDINA. Many of the pilgrims to Mecca visit Medina; this, though not absolutely enjoined, is strongly recommended. This

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city is 180 miles north of Mecca, seventy east of the Red Sea, in latitude 25° north, and contains 8000 inhabitants. It derives all its consequence from being the place of refuge to which Mahomet fled in the early period of his imposture; and where he collected and armed his followers, and commenced a religious warfare, which terminated in the conquest of a part of Europe, and a considerable portion of Asia. The city also contains the tomb and bones of Mahomet enclosed within a mosque, which is distinguished only for the treasures of pearls, diamonds, and precious stones, which have accumulated for centuries from the contributions of rich pilgrims.

GOVERNMENT AND MANNERS. Arabia is considered as a province of the Ottoman empire, and its stationary inhabitants are subject to a Turkish governor. The exercise of his authority consists in levying tribute, and men when they are wanted for the wars of the sultan. The Turkish dominion over the Bedouins, or unsettled inhabitants of its deserts, is merely nominal. Their country, destitute of every other valuable property, is a safeguard to their independence. No enemy or oppressor can follow them with sufficient celerity across their trackless deserts.

The manners, character, customs, and appearance of the Arabians, have many peculiarities. They are said to be the descendants of Ishmael, the expatriated son of Abraham, from the supposed resemblance in their character to the prophetic description of his person: "He shall be a wild man, his hand shall be against every man, and every man's hand against him." This description applies as well to the Bedouin Arabs, as to all other robbers and pirates, whose occupation is plunder, either on land or water. No historical records, or any facts, either confirm or refute this conjecture; it stands, therefore, on the ground of numerous others put forth under like circumstances.

The Arab is of a middling size, lean, and apparently dried up with the heat; an appearance, no doubt, occasioned by their abstemiousness, and the habit of dispensing with the use of liquids for a length of time. Their complexion is brown, their eyes dark, and hair black. Gravity of deportment, which is regarded by the people of the east as a distinguished mark of good breeding, is less natural to the Arabian than to the Turk. They are swift on foot, dexterous in riding and handling the bow, and good marksmen. They have the general character of bravery.

Their religion teaches them that their fate is previously determined, that their lives will neither be lengthened or shortened by any exertions of their own, and that if killed in battle they will go immediately to paradise. Robbery is the open profession of the Bedouins; and the art of cheating is its sub-

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stitute in the commercial towns. The foundation of these vices is the want of a regular government to check and punish them.

HOSPITALITY. To balance, in some degree, these national faults, the Arabs practice the ancient patriarchal hospitality of the country. The traveller who is so fortunate as to escape being robbed, on throwing himself on the hospitality of a respectable sheik of the desert, may depend on a kind reception. In some places, public houses are provided, where travellers are lodged and fed several days without expense. When an Arabian is at his meal, a stranger who happens to come in, is invited to eat, without distinction of rank or religion; and when a sheik eats with a traveller it is a sure pledge of protection. At times a traveller has been known to enter the tent of one who has robbed him, and is received with the accustomed hospitality; the sheik quieting his conscience on the score of the robbery, and consoling his guest with the reflection, "that God is merciful, and will repay his losses." The traveller is dismissed in a friendly manner, sometimes accompanied with presents, both avoiding any notice of their former meeting.

The Arabs of the desert live in tents; the houses of the wealthy stationary inhabitants are destitute of taste, and of every thing which a European would consider as convenient apartment or furniture. The rooms of the men are in front, those of the women are out of view in the rear. Even the poorest Bedouin divides his tent by a kind of curtain, behind which his women are concealed from the eye of indecent curiosity. The Arabian is sober and temperate in the use of food and drink, to perfection. The common people eat but one meal a day, composed of bad bread, resembling thin barley cakes, kept so long as to be perfectly dry and hard as a stone. They take with this a little camel's milk, and sometimes, as a species of luxury, they use a little, butter, grease, or vegetable oil.

Pure water is their beverage. Animal food is little used. Pork was prohibited on account of the filthiness of the swine, long before the time of Mahomet. Sometimes a wandering tribe, destitute of other provisions, devour the flesh of a camel which has died of old age or disease. This abstemiousness, when it stops short of absolute famine, is favorable to health and long life. A Bedouin is seldom sick. Fevers and other diseases, the concomitants and the punishment of luxurious living, are unknown. Physicians and surgeons have no employment. A wounded Bedouin is soon cured by binding the several parts together, without other aid.

With respect to animal enjoyment, taking all things into consideration, the philosopher places the balance between the half starved Bedouin Arab, and the surfeited European epicure, much in favor of the former. Arabian temperance however must be

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spoken of with some qualification. Spiritous liquors and wine, though forbidden by their laws and religion, are not unknown among them; and they have a kind of plant resembling hemp in appearance, which is often smoked to a degree producing intoxication. The Arabians take their meals seated on the floor or ground, or low tables, and without knives or forks.

They, like their neighbors, the Persians, are fond of loose flowing garments. They wear also wide short tuckered trowsers with a leather girdle, under which is stuck a poniard or dagger. In full dress the Arabian cloke is always worn. It consists of a large double folded square piece of cloth, with a slit in the middle for the neck, and one on each side for the arms. The fabric of these mantles is goat's or camel's hair closely interwoven. The test of their goodness is to pour water into them, which they sometimes retain an hour without losing a drop. The length of time which they retain the water determines their quality.

The Arabians encircle their heads with caps, consisting of several folds of cloth. In general, their legs and feet are bare, the soles of their feet being hardened by use, to bear the heat of the sand, without inconvenience. In the mountainous and sharp stony districts, they sometimes protect their feet by sheep skin sandals.

ARABIAN WOMEN. The Arabian women of the lower orders wear nothing but an inner garment and pantaloons. Female taste in the higher orders, shows itself in necklaces, and in rings, and bracelets, pendant as well from the nose as ears. They dye their nails red, and their feet and hands of a yellowish brown. Their eyelids are blackened with the sulphurate of antimony. The ancient practice of marking on the skin the figures of animals, flowers, and stars, which existed before the time of Mahomet, is still in use among the Bedouin women. The fashions of the east seldom change. The dress of queen Esther, and other personages described in the old testament, is of the same model with that of Arabian women of rank at the present day.

In their songs and tales of love, the taste of the Arabian connoisseur in beauty is exhibited in a portrait of his favorite female. "Her form is tall and slender like the rush which bends before the wind, or like the lances of the men of Yemen. Voluminous at midnight from right to left, she enters the tent door with difficulty. Two firm pomegranates swell the alabaster surface of her bosom. Her eyes are lively and tender as the antelope; her eyebrows arched, and her black hair drawn together by a clasp, waves over her neck like the camel's."

The complexions of the lower order of women in the plains, and maratime regions of Arabia, are a deep yellow. But in the upland and mountainous parts, the females, even of the peas-

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antry, exhibit forms and complexions, of which an Italian or Grecian beauty might be proud. The constraint to which the Arabian women are subjected does not always prevent intrigues. The wandering life of the Bedouin necessarily affords greater freedom to the women.

The desert is the theatre of the keen passions, depicted in the Arabian tales, but the path of the intruder on the sanctuary of the harem is always attended with perils, and often with death.

The name Arab, signifies an inhabitant of the west, that being the position of the country, in relation to the other parts of Asia. The Bedouins ("sons of the desert,") scorn the imbecile rule of the Turkish sultan. They are divided into a number of independent tribes, each having a leader, called a sheik under whose direction they traverse the desert, plunder and fight. They are not confined to the limits of Arabia, but pitch their tents in the deserts of Persia, Palestine, Egypt, and the northern regions of Africa, and are a terror to the settled inhabitants of these countries.

CAMEL. The most useful and important animal of the east is the camel. Without its aid, the deserts of Arabia could neither be inhabited or traversed. The camel is called a living ship, navigating the oceans of sand in the desert. The inland commerce of the east is carried on by the assistance of these valuable animals, who supply the place of the canals and railroads of the west. The rate of transportation, though more expensive than the improved modern mode, is much cheaper than the wagoning of former periods.

HORSE. Next to the camel, the horse is the most noted and valuable animal of the country. Arabia is the native region of fine horses. There are two species, the common and the Koshlain, or noble kind; the latter are highly prized for their beauty and fleetness. They are said to be descended from Solomon's stud. Their genealogy is traced back by their owners for two thousand years. Great care is taken to preserve the purity of this race. They are capable of sustaining great fatigue, and are able to pass an entire day without food. They are highly esteemed for war, their charges are impetuous, and generally irresistible. The best are bred by the Bedouin sheiks in the north of Arabia, and are the handsomest animals known. The beauty and elegance of the Arabian horse is proverbial. They have spread in great numbers in Europe and the United States, and mix well with and improve the native breeds of the countries into which they are carried. But the pure Arabian blood is the best.

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CHAPTER X.

Africa. Extent, population. Classes of inhabitants. Zahara, or great desert. Oases. Egypt. Its extent and population. Nile; its sources; its inundations; their effects. Agriculture and climate. The Sirocco. Pyramids. Sphynx. Labyrinth. Mummies. Manner of preservation. Condition in which they are found. Funeral rites in different countries; their objects. Religion of Egypt. Classes of inhabitants. Mamalukes. Their origin, power, and subjection. French invasion of 1798. *Its objects and results. Cairo. The Delta. Alexandria. Ethiopia. Travellers. Bruce and Belzoni. Inhabitants. Troglodites. Gallas. Shangallas. Jews of Abyssinia. Government and religion. Nubia and Abyssinia. Barbary States. Situation, extent, and former condition. Barca. Tripoli. War of* 1801. *Loss of the frigate Philadelphia. Eaton's connection with Sidi Hamet. Peace with Tripoli. Release of the crew of the Philadelphia. Tunis. Algiers. Its extent, population, and force. Origin of Barbary piracy. Depredations on American commerce from* 1785 *to* 1793. *Treatment of prisoners. Decatur's expedition. Capture of Algerine ships. Treaty of* 1815. *War with Great Britain in* 1816. *Capture and subjugation of Algiers in* 1830, *by the French. Extinction of Algerine piracy. City of Algiers.*

AFRICA. Africa is a great peninsula, surrounded on all sides by water, excepting a narrow strip of land on its northeastern border, connecting it with Asia. It is in the form of a triangle, its base resting on the Mediterranean, and its point terminating in latitude 34° south; its length from north to south is 4600 miles, and its greatest breadth from cape Verd on the west, to cape Guardafui on the east is 3500. It is computed to contain 12,000,000 of square miles. Its population is variously estimated from 50,000,000 to 100,000,000. All calculations respecting its number of inhabitants are uncertain, the interior being very little known.

Most modern travellers who have attempted to explore it, have perished by disease, or been massacred, and their journals lost. The waters which surround it are the Mediterranean on the north, the Red sea, the straits of Babelmandel, (gate of misfortune) and the Indian ocean on the east and southeast, and the Atlantic on the west and southwest. It is considered as one

the four quarters of the globe, but it is much the least in numbers and importance containing not more than a tenth part of the inhabitants.

CLASSES OF INHABITANTS. The people are of two castes or orders, designated by color. Those of north Africa, comprehending Morocco, the Barbary States, and Egypt, are of a dark brown; and their form, figure, and complexion, are the same as the Asiatic inhabitants of the same latitudes. From the northern tropic south, they are negroes divided into a great number of tribes, each having some peculiarities of character, but all having the general complexion, color, and form of the negro. The physical character of this race is so different from all others, that doubts have been raised whether they were descendants from the same stock. To a believer in the Bible, the subject does not admit of a question. The fact that a union of the sexes in every grade, from one generation to another, produces an offspring the compound of both, proves to the philosopher the affirmative of the question. The causes of the diversity must, therefore, be sought in the climate, habits, and manner of life.

ZAHARA. It is estimated that the great desert Zahara, in the northwestern section of Africa, contains a million of square miles, nearly one tenth of the whole peninsula. It is bounded west by Morocco and some negro villages on the Atlantic coast, north by Morocco and the Barbary states, and east by Egypt. It extends south to regions inhabited by negro tribes. It lies between latitude 15° and 30° north, and reaches from east to west nearly across the peninsula in its widest place. It is the largest desert on earth; and a great part of its surface is a dead level, diversified, however, in some places, with rocks, ravines, and some eminences covered with small shrubs. Other parts are composed of moving sand, which, when blown about, produce the most disastrous effects.

Lions, antelopes, panthers, large serpents, and ostriches, are the principal inhabitants of this dreary region. It could neither be inhabited, nor traversed by human beings, but for the oases, a kind of verdant, habitable island in this ocean of burning sand. They contain springs of water, dates and palm trees, and other green things. They serve as stopping places for caravans, where they obtain fresh supplies of water. They are also the temporary residence of the Bedouins, who pitch their tents on them, and remain as long as they find sustenance for their camels, and when that is consumed on one, they hasten to another, enjoying a perfect freedom from all political restraint. Thirty of these oases of different sizes have been found in this desert.

LYBIAN DESERT. In the northeastern portion of Africa, and immediately west of the lands watered by the Nile, is the great

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Lybian desert, which is indeed only a continuation of the other; in some places it approaches near the Mediterranean. Oases are found in this section to a great extent, and sometimes containing permanent villages. One called the great oasis of the Lybian desert, consists of a number of islands, extending 100 miles, in a line paralel with the Nile; and forms the first stage for the Darfour caravan. One called the northern oasis, in latitude 29° north, is inhabited by 8000 souls, and is supposed to contain the ruins of the temple of Jupiter Hammon. Another, called the western oasis, was first visited by an English gentleman of the name of Edwards, in 1819. It contains twelve villages. This traveller's curiosity led him to visit a number of these oasis, of which he has given a minute description. They are to be found in the great deserts of Asia, as well as in Africa, and in both are of a similar character, and answer the same purposes.

Oases in the Desert.

EGYPT. Egypt, on many accounts, the most important division of Africa, is situated between latitude 22° and 32° north, and is bounded on the east by the Red sea and isthmus of Suez, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the west by the Lybian desert, and on the south by Nubia; it contains about 200,000 square miles, only about 17,000 of which, comprising the valley of the Nile, are productive. This valley derives its fertility altogether from the overflowings of the Nile, and for its extent is one of the richest in the world. It is 600 miles long, and from 15 to 30 broad.

NILE. The Nile has its source in the mountains of Abyssinia, in central Africa; and is formed by the junction of two princi-

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pal branches; one called the White river, rising in Abyssinia, and running a northerly course, forms a junction with the other in latitude 16° north. This latter, called the Blue river, rises in what are called the mountains of the moon, and runs in a north-easterly course to the junction. This having the greatest body of water is considered as the true Nile. The distance from the highest sources of this river to the sea, is 2500 miles, and from the junction of its principal branches, where it assumes the name of the Nile, is 1500. In the course of 1200 miles, the Nile meets with no confluent branch, a phenomenon no where else to be found in the natural history of rivers. The Nile was formerly said to enter the sea by seven mouths. It has now but two principal entrances, and neither of these can be passed by vessels drawing more than eight feet of water.

The cataracts of the Niles, so much talked about by the ancients, are found to be nothing more than what are termed rapids; and of a size scarcely noticeable in other rivers. Its inundations, of so much consequence to the inhabitants, are caused by the periodical rains on the mountains near its sources. These rains begin in March, but have no effect on the river until the middle of June, when it commences rising at the rate of about four inches a day, and continues its rise until the end of September, when, after remaining stationary for a short period, it begins to fall, and continues falling at about the same rate, and for the same period. The inhabitants watch the progress of its rise with interest, as upon its rising to a proper height depend their hopes for the succeeding year. For the purpose of marking its daily rise, they have Nilometers, marked with the necessary graduations. Arabian writers ascribe the invention of this instrument to Joseph during his regency in Egypt. Fixing a graduated post in the river to mark its rise, though spoken of as an important invention, was not one of great difficulty. Thirty-eight feet is considered as the rise producing the greatest fertility, without danger. In 1829, a rise of forty-seven feet destroyed a great many villages, with their inhabitants and flocks. A rise not exceeding twenty-eight feet produces scarcity, and less than that, famine.

The lower parts of Egypt, towards the Mediterranean, have been gradually raised by deposits brought down by the overflowing of the Nile. At its height, the water is distributed by means of canals, over the whole flat country. There are ninety large ones, and numerous branches. The largest is called Joseph's canal, from a tradition that it was made by that prince. It is one hundred miles in length, and from fifteen to thirty feet in breadth. It conveys much of the superfluous waters to lake Mœris, and fertilizes a large district of country through which it passes.

AGRICULTURE. The agriculture of Egypt is of two kinds, one

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belonging to the lands watered by the overflowings of the river, and the other, to those which the inundation does not reach. The first is the principal, and by far the most extensive. Nothing exceeds the fertility of the overflowed lands. The waters leave a rich sediment, abundantly sufficient for all the purposes of vegetation. The grain is sown in October and November, immediately after the subsiding of the waters. The seed is committed to the ground, after a slight preparation, while it is moist and slimy, and sinking by its own weight to a sufficient depth, needs no labor to cover it, or any other care until harvest. April is the harvest month. The lands not reached by the natural rise of the river, are laid out in squares, separated by dikes, on the surface of which small channels are made, communicating with each other. To fill these channels, the water is drawn from the river, by means of a long lever, with a weight at one end and a bucket at the other, which requires but little exertion to depress and raise. The water thus drawn is emptied into a reservoir, from whence it is conveyed into the channels, as wanted.

The construction of the lever not admitting the raising of the water more than six feet, the farmer is obliged to provide himself with a succession of basins and levers, according to the height of his land above the level of the river. Various other methods are in use for raising water, particularly the Persian wheel, operated by oxen. This laborious method is chiefly confined to small patches for gardening. The fertility of the Egyptian soil is proverbial. Egypt was formerly considered the granary of Europe, and it still maintains, in a considerable degree, its character; though being oppressed by a despotic government, it is badly cultivated, and much less productive than formerly.

Egypt may be said to be almost without rain. Except along the coast, nothing is more rare. The scarcity increases towards the south. The season in which any rain falls is called winter. At Cairo, there are not, on an average, more than four or five showers in a year, and in southern, or upper Egypt, not more than one or two. This is accounted for from the peculiar formation of the country, and the course of the winds. Egypt is a long valley of about 600 miles, and no hills to obstruct the evaporations from the Mediterranean, which are driven by the northerly winds through this valley, to the mountains of central Africa; where they are condensed, and, falling in copious rains, form the sources of the Nile.

In lower Egypt, near the coast, rains are not unfrequent; which shows that the absence of rain further to the south does not arise from the flatness of the surface. No country is more flat than the sea shore on the Egyptian coast; but its perpetual humidity has a tendency to produce rains, to which the more

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southerly and sandy expanse is unfavorable. Egypt, beyond the reach of the waters of the Nile, is mostly a desert, which the Bedouin Arab claims as his home.

CLIMATE. From the nature of its surface, and the universal aridity of the deserts, Egypt is much warmer than other countries under the same parallel. The prevailing winds for the greater part of the year are from the north. The approach of the vernal equinox in March, changes the face of the country. The hot south wind begins to blow. The atmosphere sometimes assuming a purple tinge, seems to lose its adaptedness to respiration. A dry burning heat universally prevails, and the whirlwinds, resembling the blasts of a heated furnace sweep along in frequent succession. The fine sand is driven into the houses through every cranny. This south wind, passing over deserts of burning sand, is called, in Egypt, khamseen, in Asia, samoon or samiel, and in Europe, sirocco; and is dangerous to the lives and health of all persons exposed to it. Every one endeavors to avoid its effects by shutting himself up in the closest apartment. In Egypt, it seldom lasts more than three days at any one period. The plague has been indigenous in Egypt, both in ancient and modern times.

PYRAMIDS. The pyramids in this country are among the most ancient and extraordinary efforts of human labor. There are now standing, about forty, consisting of five groups, and situated near to and on the west border of the Nile, in the neighborhood of Cairo. The largest is ascribed to an ancient Egyptian king named Cecrops; and is 447 feet in height, and the length of its base 720. The antiquity of these erections, and the purposes for which they were built, have furnished matter of much ingenious conjecture.

In later times, they have been explored to a considerable extent, and satisfactorily ascertained to be the burying places of the kings and great men of ancient Egypt. Herodotus, who lived 500 years before the Christian era, and travelled in Egypt, speaks of the pyramids as ancient monuments. According to his account, 100,000 men worked upon the largest for twenty years, without intermission. The pyramids are generally built of lime stone, and are of a quadrangular form, with a base equal to their height, and the four sides corresponding with the cardinal points; and have spacious apartments.

SPHYNX. Near the great pyramid is the collossal sphynx, another extraordinary and useless monument of human labor. The figure consists of a human head on the body of a lion, carved out of an immense rock. The lion is 150 feet long, and with the human head, the figure is sixty-three feet high. The head and body are of a single stone; the paws, which are thrown out fifty feet in front, are of masonry. There are nu-

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merous other figures of the same kind, but of less dimensions, in other parts of Egypt. Little is known concerning the origin or the object of these figures. They are supposed to be the objects of worship, not for their good, but for their bad qualities. The fable respecting the goddess, of which these are designed to be resemblances, is, that she at certain periods put forth enigmas, requiring her devotees to explain them; and in case of failure, devoured those who made an unsuccessful attempt. That the Theban oracle declared, that the sphynx would destroy herself as soon as one of her enigmas should be rightly explained. That she put forth this, of which a solution was required under the usual penalty,—"What animal walks upon four legs in the morning, upon two at noon, and upon three in the evening?" Creon, king of Thebes, offered his sister in marriage, and the succession to his throne, to any person who would deliver his country from the monster, by a successful explanation of this paradox. Whereupon, Oedipus, a celebrated Theban philosopher, gave this solution: "Man in childhood, the morning of life, walks on his hands and feet; at noon, middle age, he walks erect on two; and in the evening of his days he supports himself with his staff, constituting his third leg." The sphynx hearing this explanation, and acknowledging it to be the true one, immediately threw herself from a rock and expired.

LABYRINTH. In central Egypt is also situated the celebrated labyrinth, consisting, as is said, originally of three thousand rooms, arranged in such a manner that no person can find the way into or out of them, without a clue or thread to conduct him. This also is a sepulchral building, and the bones of those by whose order it was built are said to be contained in its lower apartments. At present, only one hundred and fifty of the rooms are accessible; the others are dark and choked up with rubbish.

MUMMIES. The mummies of upper Egypt are another curiosity peculiar to the country, and one that has excited much learned disquisition as to the manner of preserving them. Human bodies, in which life has been extinct for ages, are found in great abundance, and in a state of perfect preservation, in the mausoleums and tombs in the region of the ancient city of Thebes. The Arabs make a gainful traffic by digging among these ruins, and selling the bodies and ornaments which they find. The bodies of persons of rank are easily distinguished from those of the common people, by the care and expense of preserving them, and the ornaments with which they are decorated. Much may be learned from this source relative to the manners and customs of the ancient Egyptians, who employed their wealth in nothing more lavishly than in their mode of disposing of the dead bodies of their kindred.

The mummies of the poor are found without any wooden cov-

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ering, and wrapped only in a piece of coarse linen. Those of the more opulent are found in cases of sycamore, covered with a cement resembling plaister of Paris, on which various figures and hieroglyphics are marked, supposed to contain some account of the good deeds of the deceased. The tombs of the rich are highly magnificent, consisting of different apartments, adorned with various figures. Small idols are also found lying around the bodies.

Much has been said respecting the existence and the loss of the Egyptian art of preserving human bodies by embalming. The mummies of upper Egypt prove only that the atmosphere is so arid as to extract the moisture from the human body before putrefaction can take place. Indeed, putrefaction in any substance is there scarcely known. No extraordinary skill therefore is necessary for the preservation of a corpse.

RELIGION. The religion of the ancient Egyptians, was idolatry of the grossest kind, worshipping any thing animate or inanimate, which they supposed possessed the power of doing them good or harm. The religion of modern Egypt is Mahometanism, with a liberal toleration to other sects.

CLASSES OF INHABITANTS. The original inhabitants of Egypt are distinguished by the name of Copts; and are characterized by travellers as having dark complexions, flat foreheads, woolly hair, thick lips, and other appearances of the negro. They live principally in upper Egypt, and are estimated at about 200,000. The Arabs and their descendants, are the most numerous inhabitants of the country; and here, as in Arabia, they are divided into two classes; the Bedouin or wandering Arab of the desert, and the stationary; the latter being principally agriculturists. The other inhabitants are Turks, Armenians, Greeks, and Jews, by whom commerce is principally managed. They are of the general character and physiognomy of the respective countries from which they originated.

MAMALUKES. Egypt has been successively conquered and occupied by the Persians, Grecians, Romans, and Turks. It now nominally constitutes a part of the great Ottoman empire, and is governed by a pacha.

In later periods, the mamalukes have acted an important part in the affairs of Egypt. Their origin is as follows:

In the 13th century, Gengis Khan, a celebrated Indian prince, made himself master of a great part of Asia, and as was customary, sold the inhabitants for slaves. The Turkish pacha of Egypt, Malek Sala, purchased 12,000 of them, consisting of young men, principally inhabitants of northern Asia, instructed them in the art of war, and formed them into a military corps.

Under his successor, these mamalukes, a term denoting slaves

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made themselves masters of Egypt, and governed it by twenty-four beys, selected from their own body, being governors of the twenty-four provinces into which the country was divided. Their numbers and strength were kept up by additional slaves, brought to Cairo from the regions of the Caspian and Black seas. They acknowledge a nominal subjection to the sultan and his pacha; but the real government of the country has been in their hands for several centuries; the pachas being obliged to sumbit to their claims. Severe and bloody conflicts between the beys and pachas have been frequent, and from 1802 to 1811, almost incessant. In March, of the latter year, Mahommed Ali Pacha, under a pretence of friendship, gave a general invitation to the mamaluke beys and chiefs, to attend on a festive occasion at Cairo, and perfidiously murdered 470 of them, and afterwards put to death all that he could get within his power. Since that time the authority of the mamalukes has ceased, and that of Mahommed Ali has prevailed, with only a nominal subjection to the Porte. He governs Egypt as an absolute despot; holding a monopoly of its productions as lord of the soil, and of the goods brought into the country, whether consumed or passing through it.

With his unprincipled despotism he possesses great political knowledge, and is endeavoring to establish fleets, armies, and fortifications on the European plan. In 1827, he had twelve regiments of four thousand men each, raised by impressment from his Arab subjects and peasantry, clothed in uniform, and armed and disciplined after the European manner. He protects and encourages foreigners, and causes young Turks to be educated at Paris, and instructed in the arts and manners of Europe. Under his government, Egypt is improving and putting on the appearance of European civilization.

Mahommed was born at a small village in European Turkey, of obscure parents, in 1769, and lived to the age of forty without being able to read or write. He raised himself to his present eminence amidst many disadvantages, by his own enterprize; succeeded to the government of Egypt in 1805; and is now in the actual possession, not only of this country, but of Syria, a considerable portion of Arabia, of the island of Crete, and of Nubia and Sennaar, in South Africa.

French Invasion. Bonaparte's invasion of Egypt, in 1798, had an important bearing on its destinies. In 1797, his successes had compelled the combined powers of Europe, on the continent, to make peace. He was then at the head of a numerous and victorious army, which the directory found necessary for their own safety, to employ on some foreign object. Two were proposed, one the invasion of England, the other the conquest of Egypt. Great preparations were made for the first. The whole disposable force, and a numerous flotilla was collected on the

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coast, opposite England. That country presented a navy, able to destroy, at one stroke, any flotilla that should advance towards its shores; an army of 100,000 disciplined men, and an armed population of a million and a half of soldiers, to meet them on their landing. This project was abandoned, and the second adopted; the first serving, at the same time, the purpose of concealing the other. On the 19th of May, 1798, a French armament, consisting of thirteen ships of the line, eighty-six frigates and corvettes, and 400 transports, with 40,000 troops, sailed from the French ports of the Mediterranean. Their destination and their objects were an entire secret. They were, as afterwards developed, designed to convert Egypt into a French colony; by which France could command the East India trade to Europe, by means of the Red sea, and establish a military position from whence they could invade the British East Indies by land.

Great Britain, however, had nothing to fear from this quarter, as no army could be marched across the Arabian and Persian deserts. A part of the scheme was to induce the Porte to believe that the French would act as allies in subduing the rebellious mamalukes, and Talleyrand was to be sent to Constantinople on this errand. This part of the plan did not succeed. The Porte considered the invasion as hostile, and declared war against France.

An armament landed in Egypt on the second of July, and took possession of the coast, embracing the whole region of the Delta, with little opposition; and on the 23d, Bonaparte fought a decisive battle with the mamalukes, near the pyramids, in which he put to flight their whole army, consisting of 20,000 men. The victory was so decisive, that no further resistance was made; and Bonaparte took possession of Cairo on the next day. He immediately organized a government, professing himself a true disciple of Mahomet, and secured to the people the enjoyment of their property and religion. To the inhabitants of Egypt, who were capable of comprehending Bonaparte's objects and scheme of government, and the probable consequences of becoming a French colony, the subject was popular. To them it would be only a change of masters, and they had no fears of finding any worse than the Turks.

These prospects were suddenly blasted by the destruction of the French fleet at Aboukir, and by the combination of England and Turkey, to prevent Egypt from becoming a French colony. Cut off from any communication or aid from France, by the British fleet, Bonaparte had to contend with the combined force of Turkey and Great Britain, with the unhealthiness of the climate, with the plague, and with the remnant of the mamaluke force.

After struggling fifteen months with these complicated diffi-

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culties, he privately left Egypt, bequeathing to Kleber, his successor, the honor of surrendering the army to its enemies. Bonaparte's first success broke down the mamaluke authority in Egypt so effectually, that it never afterwards recovered. He took out with him a retinue of 2000 non-combatants, consisting of savans, (philosophers,) physicians, artists, mechanics, and laborers of all descriptions. One object was to explore as well the antiquities, as the present capacities of the country. From their researches much information has been obtained on these subjects.

CAIRO. Cairo is the principal city of Egypt, situated on the east bank of the Nile, 100 miles from its mouth, in latitude 30° north. The city, exclusive of its suburbs and gardens, is seven miles in circumference, enclosed by strong walls. The castle is built on a rock, containing Joseph's well, 276 feet deep, and is the residence of the pacha. The city contains 200,000 inhabitants, consisting of Arabs, Copts, Mamalukes, Greeks, Syrians, Jews, and natives of various countries in Europe. It is the centre of commercial communications between Europe, the Mediterranean sea, Asia, and the north of Africa.

DELTA. The Nile separates into two principal branches, seventy miles from its mouth, and forms the Delta, or what is called lower Egypt, being a triangle, the base of which, resting on the Mediterranean, is 170 miles long, and each of its sides seventy miles. On the west branch of the Nile, at its entrance into the sea, is the city of Alexandria, noted for what it has been, rather than for what it is in modern times. It was built by Alexander the great, 300 years before the Christian era, and designed by him for the head of a mighty empire. Before a passage was found to the East Indies by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, at the close of the 15th century, by the Portuguese, Alexandria was the centre of commerce between the East Indies and Europe. From that period, its wealth, population, and importance have declined. It formerly contained 300,000 inhabitants, now only 13,000. An ancient canal between Alexandria and Cairo has lately been re-opened by the Pacha Ali Mahommed, which has greatly improved its commerce. In the year 1824, 1300 ships visited this port, about one half of which were Austrians.

There are two other considerable towns on the Delta, Damietta, on the eastern, and Rosetta on the western branch of the Nile; the latter contains 13,000 inhabitants, and forms the medium of communication between Alexandria and Cairo. Aboukir is a small village, having a strong castle on the western side of a spacious bay, protected by a point of land extending into the sea, and several small islands. It lies on the coast ten miles east of Alexandria, and has a population of 100 Arabs.

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It is noted only for being in the neighborhood of, and giving name to, the celebrated naval battle of the 3d of August, 1798, in which Nelson obtained a complete victory over the French fleet, and decided the fate of Egypt.

ETHIOPIA. South of Egypt is the country of ancient Ethiopia, bounded on the east by the Red sea and straits of Babelmandel, and extending south and west indefinitely. It is high table land, giving rise to the sources of the Nile, and several other rivers, running in different directions. Neither its present population or extent is sufficiently known to be the subject of any probable conjecture. It is spoken of in the Bible, and other ancient histories, as a country of much importance, and as being one of the most remote in the then known world. The principal information of its condition in modern times, is derived from two travellers, James Bruce a Scotchman, and Belzoni, an Italian. Their relations are to be received with more than ordinary caution, as they are made without fear of contradiction from other travellers. Bruce, also, is said to be a very vain man, and proud of his discoveries, from whence may be inferred a disposition to magnify their wonders. He travelled in Ethiopia, in 1770, in search, as he says, of the sources of the Nile, and found, as may readily be supposed, the object of his search. There were some fountains, or ponds of water, on the highlands of Ethiopia, whose outlet led into the Nile. How many other waters more remote, there may be of the same description, is not known. Belzoni visited upper Egypt and Nubia, in 1817. From their publications, we learn that the country is much degenerated from its ancient condition; and that its inhabitants exhibit various grades, from the lowest point of the savage state, up to a degree of partial civilization. Among the lowest are the Troglodites, so called from their dens, or places of habitation, in the hollows of rocks. Trogla in Greek, signifying a cavern, or hollow places in a rock. These recesses, on the sides of the mountains, and on the coasts of the Red sea, form the ordinary dwellings of the inhabitants and their goats, which together constitute their whole property. The uncouth and singular sounds of their language, being a corruption of the Arabic, give them the appearances of howling and hissing, instead of articulating. They paint every part of their bodies, and ornament themselves with various shells hung round the neck, which they believe to have the power of protecting them from evil spirits. The rich among them subsist on goat's milk, and sometimes treat themselves with the flesh and bones of the goat, mashed together and boiled in a bag made of the skin, which forms their richest repast. The poor subsist on locusts, serpents and all sorts of reptiles. The Italian traveller gives this description of a fisherman, an inhabitant of the coast, as a specimen of that portion of the population. "He lived in a

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tent five feet wide, with his wife, daughter, and son-in-law. He had no boat, but went to sea on the trunk of a tree, with a piece of wood fastened horizontally on each end, to prevent its turning over, and a small hole for a mast in the centre, and a shawl for a sail, managed by a cord. On this vessel, two fishermen go out, and with long spears take their fish."

GALLAS. Another nation equally degraded, but much more ferocious, called Gallas, occupy several provinces of Abyssinia. They subsist principally on raw meat, smear themselves with the blood of their enemies, and ornament themselves with their bowels strung around their necks, and interwoven in their hair. They are nomades, wandering tribes, whose incursions are sudden and destructive. They slaughter every thing in their way, excepting the male youth, whom they preserve and convert into eunuchs, and sell, to supply the Turkish harems. Ethiopia is the country from which Turkey is supplied with slaves of this description. Wars are frequently undertaken, the object of which is to obtain male children to supply this market; and instances are related where parents prepare their children, and dispose of them in this manner.

The Gallas worship the moon and stars, trees and stones. They believe in a future state, and in magic and sorcery. Their chiefs enjoy only a temporary and precarious authority, depending for its duration on the success of their enterprises. They give audience, seated on what they consider a throne, in their wretched hovels. Their guards and sentinels first beat with their bludgeons, any stranger who presents himself, and then introduce him into the royal presence, complimenting him for his fortitude in not being driven away by their acts.

SHANGALLAS. Another race equally degraded, but less ferocious, are the Shangallas, inhabiting the wooded heights of Nubia and Abyssinia. The visages of these negroes bear a striking resemblance to the ape. They are hunted as wild beasts, by their neighbors, who consider themselves more civilized. They spend a part of the year under the shade of trees, and in the cold season, take shelter in caverns dug out of the soft sand-stone rocks. They go quite naked, and arm themselves with poisoned javelins, and subsist on locusts, and on wild beasts, either found dead or slain with their poisoned weapons. The nature of the soil, alternately drenched in water and baked by violent heat, precludes all cultivation.

JEWS OF ETHIOPIA. In the western part of Abyssinia is an independent nation of Jews, having their own laws and government. They purchase this privilege of the negro prince of Abyssinia, by an annual tribute. Bruce found there a Jewish king called Gideon, and a queen, Judith, supposed to be the common names of all their sovereigns. They are a much higher

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grade of population, and exercise the trades of carpenters, smiths, and cloth makers. They have the books of the old testament in the language of the country. Some portion of the inhabitants of Abyssinia are Christians; and highest in the arts of civilization of any in the country. Christianity early found its way into Ethiopia from Alexandria, and is there mixed with Judaism. They observe both the first and seventh days of the week, and practice circumcision.

GOVERNMENT. Another considerable portion of the inhabitants, particularly of Nubia, are Mahometans, knowing or practising little else of their religion, than their creed, which they often repeat. Their government is a severe despotism. The reigning prince of Nubia usually puts to death all the members of the royal family who may be supposed to be rivals, thereby securing to himself a quiet possession. The king and his courtiers demand from his subjects whatever they want, without ceremony, and without any fixed rule; if refused, they take it by force, and when the opposition is formidable, they murder their opponents. At Amhara, one of the principal provinces of the country, the king has his state prison. It consists of a deep valley, inclosed by mountains, containing near its centre a cavern, into which the state prisoners are let down by a rope, and where the king holds them in strict confinement. From this tomb of living men, the grandees sometimes select a prince to fill the throne.

NUBIA AND ABYSSINIA. Nubia and Abyssinia, though agreeing in their general features, and together forming what was ancient Ethiopia, are now distinct nations, independent of, and often at war with each other. The principal city of Nubia is Semnar, supposed to contain about 100,000 inhabitants. The crown is hereditary, descending to the eldest son. A council of the grandees of the kingdom have the power of changing the succession, and of putting to death the reigning prince. The remnant of the mamalukes of upper Egypt, after the massacre of 1811, fled into Nubia, where they were pursued by Mahommed Ali, and most of them cut off. Mahommed conquered a considerable portion of the country, but soon abandoned it as not worth retaining. The military force of Nubia is estimated at 14,000.

The general complexion and features of the inhabitants of Nubia and Abyssinia, are that of the negro, with some variation from those of western Africa. In one portion of Abyssinia, on the borders of the Red sea, is a race called Agarzians, of a bronze color, whose long hair, handsome features, and regular forms resemble Europeans. From a seaport in this region, the queen of Sheba is said to have visited Solomon, and to have borne a son to the king of the Jews, whose posterity governed Ethiopia, until the year 960 of the Christian era.

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STATES OF BARBARY. The Barbary States lie on the northern coast of Africa, on the Mediterranean, extending westerly from Egypt to the Atlantic ocean, and to the south indefinitely into the great desert. This region is intersected towards the Atlantic by the mountains of Atlas. The highest is near the city of Morocco, and is 12,000 feet above the level of the sea; its summit, and that of several others, are covered with perpetual snow. This mountain, together with Gibraltar on the opposite shore of the Mediterranean, formed, according to the ancient mythology, the two pillars of Hercules, on which he sustained the world. This country was once the seat of arts, commerce and civilization. Here was situated ancient Carthage, which held a long and severe contest with Rome, for the government of the world.

Northern Africa, as a province of Rome, was considered its principal granary, and one of its most valuable possessions. Its present situation exhibits a striking picture of degradation, from a state of high cultivation, to that of barbarism and poverty, to which nations are subject. Carthage, and the highly polished cities of antiquity on this coast, are no more. The country is principally known to Europeans and Americans of modern times, as the seat of piracy, which they may be said to have voluntarily suffered to prey upon their commerce for more than a century, and by means of which, some thousands of their citizens have been enslaved. This country is divided into several regencies or principalities, each having its separate head, and all acknowledging a kind of submission to the Ottoman empire, and paying it a tribute.

BARCA. The most easterly province is Barca, extending from Egypt along the Mediterranean coast to Derne. The greater part of the country is a desert, interspersed with some fertile spots. The wandering tribes of the desert, the principal inhabitants of this region, allow no peace to the settled inhabitants, or any security to their labors.

TRIPOLI. This regency extends along the Mediterranean coast, a distance of 500 miles to Tunis, and indefinitely south, including the province of Barca, which may be considered as an appendage of Tripoli; its whole line of coast is 800 miles, and its population 20,000. This estimate includes a considerable number of Bedouins, who add nothing to the strength and revenue of the state, who fight only for pay and plunder, and are as likely to be engaged against as for their nominal masters. The navy of Tripoli consists of six armed vessels, mounting from six to sixteen guns; and its army amounts to 5000 men.

The principal town, Tripoli, lies on the Mediterranean, in latitude 33° north, 300 miles southeast of Tunis, and contains 20,000 inhabitants. It is built on a neck of land extending a considerable distance into the sea. The walls enclose much

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more territory than is occupied by buildings. The caravansaries, the mosques, and the houses of foreign consuls, and the higher order of inhabitants, are built of stone. The others are constructed of earth, small stones and mortar, and never exceed one story. They have flat roofs, connected one with another, which serve as promenades and lounging places for the inhabitants. They are built without windows towards the street. The harbor is not large, but safe, and has eighteen feet of water. The castle is an irregular square pile, and mounts fifty pieces of cannon.

WAR WITH TRIPOLI. In 1801, the bashaw of Tripoli declared war against the United States. The ground of complaint alleged was, that they underrated his importance, insomuch as they did not pay him the same tribute as they did the other Barbary States. A squadron of American ships was immediately sent to blockade the town and harbor.

In October, 1803, the United States frigate Philadelphia, in reconnoitering the town, approached too near, and grounded. She was immediately boarded by a large Tripolitian force and captured. The commanding officer, captain Bainbridge, and the crew, to the number of five hundred, were made prisoners and slaves. Tripoli was at this time governed by Jussuff, a bashaw who had obtained the throne by the murder of his father, and the expulsion of his brother, Sidi Hamet.

William Eaton, of Massachusetts, was the American consul at Tunis, where he became acquainted with the exiled bashaw. Without any authority from his government, Eaton entered into a negotiation with Sidi, the object of which was to restore him to his throne and liberate the American captives. Eaton succeeded in raising some money, and a few troops; subsequently he was appointed navy agent to the American squadron, and the commanding officer was instructed to furnish him aid in such of his projects as he could with propriety encourage. Mr. Eaton exhibited much perseverance and energy in prosecuting his undertakings, but before his schemes had arrived at maturity, a peace was negotiated, and a treaty entered into, by which the prisoners were ransomed at $60,000; no future tribute was ever to be required, and all future relations were to be upon the footing of reciprocity, and as between civilized nations.

TUNIS. Tunis lies to the northwest of Tripoli, on a large peninsula which stretches into the Mediterranean, and reaches within a hundred miles of Sicily. It has an extent of about 500 miles of coast, and 200 into the interior. It is bounded on the south by the desert, and a chain of the Atlas. Its population is variously estimated from 1,000,000 to 2,000,000. Its revenue is $4,000,000. Its land force consists of 15,000 men, and its navy of twenty piratical corsairs.

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A standing military force to any great amount is not considered necessary by any of the Barbary powers, as they can command at any time such numbers of the Arabs of the desert as they can pay. Tunis, the chief city, is situated at the bottom of a large bay, ten miles southwest of the site of ancient Carthage, and 300 east of the city of Algiers. Its population is estimated at 100,000, one half of which are Jews. The United States maintain a consular relation with this regency, and by paying a moderate tribute, have been enabled to avoid a war.

ALGIERS. The principal, and by far the most formidable of the piratical states, is Algiers. The dominions of the Dey commence on the southern border of the Mediterranean, at about the meridian of London, and extends easterly along the coast, to the kingdom of Tunis, a distance of 500 miles, and in breadth from the sea to the desert. The number of inhabitants has been variously estimated from 400,000 to 2,500,000. The lowest number, embracing only the settled inhabitants of the cultivated regions, subject to the immediate government of the Dey, is probably correct. The highest number, comprising all the inhabitants of the desert, over whom the Dey claims to exercise any authority, is considerably exaggerated.

In any estimate of the importance or strength of this regency, the settled inhabitants only should be taken into the account. Mr. Shaler, the American consul, resident a long time at Algiers, with the best means of information, estimates the whole number subject to the government of the Dey, at less than a million. They are a mixture of Turks, Arabs, Jews, and renegado Christians, such as have renounced their religion for Mahometanism, which is the religion of the state, no other being tolerated except that of the Jews.

ITS GOVERNMENT. The government of Algiers is an elective despotism. The divan, indefinite as to numbers, and composed of such as are, or have been, military officers of rank, elect the Dey, and form a council to deliberate upon such matters as he submits to them. The exclusive right of filling all offices of honor and profit, belongs to the janizaries, a military body of the same character with that of Turkey. They sometimes depose and murder the Dey. The regency acknowledges a kind of allegiance to the grand signior, and once in three years sends him a tribute under the name of a present, to the value of half a million of dollars. In return, the porte usually sends the Dey a vessel of war, with military and naval stores, and allows him to recruit his army in the Turkish dominions. The standing military force of Algiers consists of 5000.

PIRACY. Algiers has been the principal seat of a piratical warfare, which has been carried on by the Barbary powers against the commerce of Europe for several centuries. The

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Mediterranean piracy had its origin in the conduct of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, established at Malta, towards the commerce of Morocco, soon after the termination of the crusades. It was the generally received doctrine of Christian Europe in the 11th and 12th centuries, that it was not only right, but highly meritorious, to wage an exterminating war against mussulmen, merely because they held possession of Palestine and were not Christians.

In virtue of this principle, the knights of Malta carried on a piratical warfare against the commerce of Morocco. The Turkish sovereigns called upon their subjects to do the same towards the commerce of Christian Europe. Little persuasion was necessary to engage mussulmen in such an enterprise. They were taught that the favor of heaven would attend their exertions to destroy the property, and enslave the persons of infidels. Persons disposed to engage in this holy and profitable warfare, settled along the southern border of the Mediterranean, at the most convenient places, and built the cities of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli.

The piratical state of Algiers, at first a republic, was founded by two brothers, by the name of Barbarosse, in 1515. It was built upon the principle which has given to piracy a sacred character. The Moorish commerce declined; the knights of Malta lost their power, and the principle of pirating upon the commerce of Europe became established along the whole coast of northern Africa, from the Atlantic to Egypt. Algiers continued to be its principal station until its conquest by France in 1830.

Piracy on American Commerce. No nation, in proportion to the extent of its commerce, suffered more than the United States, from 1785 to 1795. Immediately after the close of the revolutionary war, their commerce extended into the Mediterranean, and fell a sacrifice to this piracy. Without any previous warning, and without any pretext, other than that the United States had not purchased an exemption by a tributary treaty, the Algerines captured and carried into their port fifteen American vessels, between the years 1785 and 1793. The ships and cargoes were made prizes, and the officers and crews condemned to slavery in its worst forms.

Immediately on the prisoners being landed, they were conducted to the palace, and drawn up in files in the court yard. The Dey selected from among them the most promising young men and boys, to do the menial services of his family. This was much the most eligible condition. The others were then conducted to the bagnio, lodged in filthy apartments, and furnished with a blanket for a bed, and left in this dismal place to brood over their condition. At midnight their reveries were disturbed by the entrance of the lisbero or guardian of the prison,

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to load them with chains of forty pounds weight each. At day break they were ordered to the marine and employed in discharging the cargoes of captured vessels. At four in the afternoon, a signal was hoisted on the mosques for the inhabitants to attend worship. Labor then ceased, and the captives were allowed to go on shore.

When there was any urgent business on hand, they were kept at work until dark. When there was no business at the marine, they were employed to carry stone to erect a mosque. For this purpose they were furnished with burrels, formed of cross pieces of timber, to which the stones were fastened with ropes. Each burrel was borne on the shoulders of four men. The weak and strong were compelled to bear equal burdens. To the robust the loads were tolerable, but to the feeble they were insupportable. Some were rendered blind by the heat and fatigue. When the procession was ready to move, it was first ordered to proceed to the port, that the prisoners might be examined to see if they had stolen any article from the vessels, and were then ordered to pass on and deliver their loads at the mosque. They were then reconducted to their prison, furnished with water and a cake of black bread for supper, and confined to the dormitories, the receptacles of filth and vermin, for the night. Some were sent into the country, others employed in hauling stones from a hill three miles from the city to the mole. The stones were placed on carriages, to which the slaves were attached, and driven in pairs like beasts.

Cruel punishments, wantonly inflicted, a scorching sun pouring its rays on their half naked bodies, scanty and unwholesome food, and miserable lodgings, filled the measure of human wretchedness. With some variation, the foregoing is the manner in which some thousands of Christian captives have been treated by the Barbary pirates.

Commodore Decatur's Expedition. During the war of 1812, Algiers renewed her depredations on American commerce, took several merchant vessels, and subjected the crews to slavery. Immediately after the close of the war, the president brought the subject before Congress, and an act was passed March 2d, 1815, which, though it did not in terms declare war, authorized the president to send a sufficient force into the Mediterranean and the adjacent seas, to protect the commerce of the United States. The act also authorized the president to commission privateers, and to instruct the public armed ships to capture and send in as prizes, all Algerine vessels. The provisions of this act were promptly carried into effect.

On the 25th of April following, commodore Decatur sailed from New York with three frigates and six small ships of war, and arrived at Gibraltar in twenty-five days, where he learned that the Algerine fleet which had been cruising in the Atlantic,

had returned and passed up the straits. This fleet, which was in pursuit of American commerce, consisted of three frigates, twenty two small vessels, and forty gun boats, being nearly the whole of the Dey's marine, and carrying 463 guns, and 4745 men. They were spread over different parts of the Mediterranean, acting in concert, and depredating on the commerce of those nations who had not purchased an exemption by tributary treaties.

Decatur's flag ship was the Guerriere, a forty gun frigate taken from the British. On the 17th of June, he fell in with the Algerine frigate Magaupa, of 46 guns, commanded by Rais Hammadi, admiral and commander in chief, and captured her after a running fight of twenty-five minutes. On the first broadside, the admiral was killed; on the second, the crew fled from the deck, ran below, and left the ship to her fate. Two days after, the commodore captured a brig of twenty-two guns and 180 men.

The American squadron then proceeded to the bay of Algiers, and made the harbor on the 28th of June, with a view of intercepting the Algerine fleet on its return. Taking a position out of the reach of the guns of the fortress, the commodore sent a flag on shore with a letter from the president, demanding the immediate release of the captives, and satisfaction for depredations. On the receipt of this letter, the captain of the port and the Swedish consul came on board. In the conference which ensued, the commodore, who with Mr. Shaler, had a joint commission, proposed as a basis of a treaty, the release of the captives, and an unqualified relinquishment of every demand for tribute. The proposition was rejected. "Do you know," said the commodore, "what has become of your fleet?" "They are safe in some neutral port," was the reply. "Not all of them," said the commodore, and gave him the particulars of the capture of the frigate and brig, and the death of the admiral; and then called up Hammadi's lieutenant and other prisoners to confirm it. In the course of twenty-four hours a treaty was concluded, such as the American commissioners dictated, providing for the release of the captives without ransom, compensation for past injuries, and a relinquishment of all claim for tribute in future. The treaty, in other respects, contained the usual stipulations. Ten thousand dollars were received from the Dey as a compensation for property captured and destroyed since his declaration of war.

The Algerine war was terminated in twelve days after the commencement of hostilities. It was of the more consequence, as it led to the abolition of the disgraceful practice of paying tribute to the piratical states. It was the first instance of a fair and honorable treaty being made with Algiers, without the intervention of tribute or presents, and was followed by the speedy extinction of piracy by the Barbary powers. The rencounter

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with the frigate and brig, and the subsequent negotiations, developed the character of these states. Severe and cruel to an enemy in their power, but cowards in the face of manly resistance. Haughty and insulting with the advantage on their side, but abject and submissive to a conquering power. The captured ships not being in a condition to cross the Atlantic, as a matter of gratuity, were restored to the Dey.

From Algiers, the commodore proceeded up the Mediterranean, and made a demonstration before Tunis and Tripoli. From the former he obtained $46.000 for injuries to American commerce; and from the latter $25,000, and also the release, without ransom, of two Danish and eight Neapolitan seaman, who had been captured and made slaves.

City of Algiers.

DESTRUCTION OF ALGIERS BY THE FRENCH. In consequence of an insult to the French consular flag, an armament consisting of 35,000 land troops, accompanied by a large naval force, sailed from Toulon, on the 1st of June, 1830, landed at a small port twelve miles east of Algiers, on the 16th, and commenced a bombardment of the city on the 4th of July. On the 5th the principal fort was blown up and abandoned, and the French took possession without further resistance. Algiers was reduced to unconditional submission, and became an appendage to France. Eighty millions of treasure, an amount sufficient to indemnify for all expenses, were found in the city.

This may be considered as the final extinction of the piratical system of the Barbary States, which has been suffered to exist for three centuries against the commerce of nations of more than ten times their force. Though Tunis and Tripoli are suffered to exist, they are too weak, without the aid of Algiers, to maintain the system, or to cause any great injury to European or American commerce.

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CITY OF ALGIERS. The city of Algiers is situated in the western section of the regency, in latitude 34° north, on the side of a hill rising abruptly from the border of a capacious bay. It is enclosed by a wall thirty feet high and twelve feet in thickness, extending a mile and a half. Its approaches are defended by 500 cannon. The houses are generally built of brick or stone, with flat and contiguous roofs, forming a promenade nearly the extent of the city. The dey's palace and some of the principal mosques, are magnificent buildings. The city makes a beautiful and commanding appearance on the water; and were it not for the disgusting idea attached to its piracy, would be considered a handsome city. Its population is variously estimated from fifty to one hundred thousand. Mr. Shaler, with the best means of information, puts it at the lowest number.

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CHAPTER XI.

Morocco. Extent and population. Different kinds of Inhabitants. Moors. Free Negroes. Christians and Jews. Manner of treating Jews. Piracy. The Atlantic Coast infested by Arabs. City of Morocco. Mogadore. Caravans. Fez: its extent. City of Fez. Manner of Travelling, and distance across the Great Desert. Arabian escorts. Nigritia or Negroland. Its extent; face of the country. Rivers. The Hippopotamus. Inhabitants. Manner of life. Habitations. Dress. Religion. Capacities of the Negro. Tombuctoo; where situated; its trade. Government in Nigritia. King of Ashantee. Description of his Court. King of the Akims. Human sacrifice at his death. The Jagas. Hottentots. Their number, character and manner of life. Bushmen. Madagascar. Situation. Extent, and population. Character and Manners of the Inhabitants. Infanticide.

MOROCCO. The empire of Morocco forms the northwestern section of Africa, and is bounded west by the Atlantic, north by the Mediterranean and straits of Gibraltar, east by Algiers, and south by the desert. It lies between the latitude of 29° and 36° north, and contains 300,000 square miles, and 6,000,000 of inhabitants. The great chain of the Atlas traverses Morocco, from east to west, and from north to south, leaving a plain of from 50 to 100 miles in breadth, and 500 miles in length, between the mountains and the sea, the most populous and fertile part of the empire.

INHABITANTS. The population of Morocco is of a mixed kind. The various races, though they and their ancestors have inhabited the same country for several centuries, have not so amalgamated as to lose their distinctive character. The Moors live principally in the large towns, and carry on trade; the settled Arabs live in villages, and are mostly agriculturists. The other races are the Berbers, being the most ancient inhabitants; free negroes, Jews, and Christians, the latter principally from Spain. The Moors entertain the most exalted ideas of themselves and their country. They call the Europeans barbarians. A Moor never abandons himself to despair; neither sufferings nor losses can extort from him a complaint; submitting to every event, however adverse, without a murmur, saying, "God's will be done," and habitually hoping for better times. The Moors ad-

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mit of no hereditary distinctions. All are born equal, whatever may be their future destiny.

JEWS. The Jews form a very considerable portion of the population, but are treated with the most revolting barbarity. Their situation exhibits a singular phenomenon. Their industry, address, and intelligence, make them masters of most of the trade, manufactures, and wealth of the nation. They direct the coinage, collect the duties, officiate as interpreters, and transact most of the business, mercantile and civil, at the same time they experience the most odious vexations. They are prohibited from writing in Arabic, or learning its characters, lest they should read the Koran, which would pollute it.

Their women are prohibited from wearing any article of green, and from veiling more than half the face. In passing a mosque they must take off their shoes. They are not allowed to ride on horseback, or to sit cross-legged in the presence of a Moor of distinction. They are often assailed in the streets and public walks, by the lowest of the Moors, who may cover them with mud, spit in their faces, or knock them down with impunity. But should a Jew raise his hand against a Moor, he runs the risk of being capitally punished.

When employed to do business for the court, they receive no pay, and think themselves fortunate if they escape without a beating. One prince ordered a dress from a Jewish tailor, and not liking it, he was about to kill the Jew on the spot, and by the intercession of the commandant of the city, was induced to change the punishment into an order, that the Jew should have his beard pulled out hair by hair. At Tangiers, an order of government was made that every Jew should go barefooted in the middle of winter, on pain of being hung up by the heels. They are sometimes like Daniel, condemned to be thrown into a den of lions. But as the keepers are generally Jews, they take care to feed the lions well, before committing their countrymen to their power, and they are sometimes taken out unharmed.

This treatment of the Jews proceeds from a wanton abuse of power; it has no apology, they having never intermeddled in the affairs of state. They have ever been, not only a harmless, but a useful class of inhabitants, without whom the commerce and manufactures of Morocco must decline. This inhuman treatment is only surpassed by the patience with which it is endured. It would be natural to suppose, that a class of inhabitants treated in this manner, would leave the country. Not so with these children of Israel; placed in a situation where money is to be obtained, they appear to care little what they endure, provided it does not interfere with their gain.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Morocco is an absolute

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despotism, and its administration a tissue of disorder, rapine, and violence. The sovereign, called emperor, or sultan of Morocco, can take any thing belonging to the subject at pleasure. The governors of the provinces have the title of Kailiff, or lieutenant. They being oppressed and pillaged by the sovereign and his courtiers, indemnify themselves by pillaging the people in their turn. The lowest officer robs the people in his master's name; and the wealth thus acquired, generally, in the end, falls into the coffers of the emperor. Under some pretext or other, those who have amassed great treasures are dismissed from office, and their property confiscated, deeming themselves fortunate if they escape with their lives. The consequences of such a system are obvious. The people, suspicious, cruel, and perfidious, respect no obligations. No confidence or social tie exists among them, and scarcely any feeling of natural affection.

Morocco was the birth place of the system of piracy so long practised by the Barbary states, adopted in the first instance in retaliation for the piracies committed under authority of the knights of Malta, it continued for centuries after its cause ceased, and spread along the northern border of Africa, from the Atlantic to Egypt. Piracy, and the practice of making slaves of Christian prisoners, is nearly abolished in Morocco. Its government now maintains with the United States, and with most of the powers of Europe, the accustomed relations between civilized nations. The army consists of 24,000 negroes, and 12,000 Moors, and the navy of fifty small ships.

Atlantic Coast. The Atlantic coast to the south of the settled parts of Morocco, is for the most part rocky, dangerous, and destitute of harbors. It is watched by fugitive Moors, and wandering Arabs, who acknowledge a kind of subjection to the emperor of Morocco, for the purpose of plundering the cargoes, and enslaving the crews of shipwrecked vessels. They make signals on the heights, along the coast, for the purpose of alluring vessels in distress, to the shore. The fate of the unhappy men that fall into their power is distressing. In conveying them back into the desert, they are made to walk forty or fifty miles a day, over the burning sand, and fed only with barley meal and water, the common food of these wandering robbers. The soles of the barefooted Europeans cannot bear the heat of the sand, over which the Arab travels without pain.

The master soon finds his European slave ill qualified for the toils and privations of this kind of life, and of little use to him. After a succession of hard marches, he generally meets with some trading Jews, settled at Wadnoon, who are crossing the desert with merchandize, to whom he sells his prisoner, for a little tobacco, salt, or some articles of clothing. The Jews take him to Wadnoon, where, as a matter of special favor he is al-

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lowed to write to the consul of his nation at Mogadore, his new master fixing his ransom at the highest sum that can be obtained.

CITY OF MOROCCO. The city of Morocco, the capital of the empire is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain, planted with palm trees, 120 miles from the sea, in latitude 32° north. Its population amounts to 40,000, one quarter of whom are Jews, possessing most of the wealth, doing most of the business, and suffering every kind of degradation. Tangier is a seaport, at the western entrance of the straits, thirty-eight miles southwest of Gibraltar; formerly a principal seat of piracy; since that has been abandoned in Morocco, Tangier has declined. It now contains 7000 inhabitants, and is the residence of European and American consuls. Sallee was also a place of some note as a den of pirates, as long as that system was practised.

MOGADORE. Mogadore, on the Atlantic coast, in the southern section of Morocco, is the principal seaport, through which most of the European commerce with the empire is carried on. It was built in 1760, on a low, flat desert of accumulated sand, which separates it from the cultivated country. Supplies are brought from gardens, a distance of from four to twelve miles. Its population, including resident foreign merchants, is estimated at 30,000. Mogadore is the only port on the Atlantic, from which supplies are carried into the interior of Africa. A caravan, consisting of about 2000 persons, and 1000 camels, annually crosses the desert, from this port to Tombuctoo, laden in its outward journey with salt, tobacco, and various kinds of coarse cloths, and on its return, with gold, ivory and slaves. Caravans cannot pass the desert in a direct line, but must turn eastward or westward, according to the position of the different oases, which greatly lengthens their journey. So scorching are the burning winds that sweep across the desert, that they sometimes dry up the water carried in leathern bottles, for the use of the travellers. A melancholy instance is related of a merchant and his camel driver, the latter of whom sold his last cup of water for ten drachms of gold, and both perished with thirst In 1805, a caravan consisting of 2000 persons and 1800 camels, not finding water at the usual resting places, all perished.

FEZ. Fez was formerly a kingdom of considerable extent, being a part of the ancient Roman province of Mauritania. It now forms the northern province of Morocco, bordering both on the Mediterranean and Atlantic. Its principal city and seaport, Fez, is on the Mediterranean, in latitude 34° north, and contains a population of 100,000. An annual caravan also proceeds from this city to the great negro emporium, Tombuctoo.

MANNER OF TRAVELLING. The Morocco merchants, proprie-

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tors of these caravans, and journeying with them, being subject to a religious code which prohibits all intoxicating liquors, use no drink but water. Dates and barley meal serve them for food during a journey of nearly twenty weeks. Their clothing is equally simple; every superfluous article of food, drink, and clothing, is left at home. Fortified by this frugality, and sustained by the prospect of returning with large gains, they travel over this dreary region, shortening the tedious hours with songs and stories of former adventures. The magnitude and variety of the caravan diminishes individual fatigue. As they approach a village in the desert, or when their camels seem ready to drop down under their burdens, their songs acquire additional spirit and animation, and seem to add new life to the scene. When the caravans travel by day, they halt at four in the afternoon, pitch their tents, join in prayer and thanksgiving for the preservation of the day, sit in a circle, eat their frugal supper, and entertain each other with songs and stories, until sleep closes the scene. Sickness or death very rarely occurs in these journeys, unless from an absolute destitution of water; and scarcely any are so overcome by fatigue, or the deprivation of their accustomed manner of living, as to be unable to complete the tour, adding one to the many proofs, that neither intoxicating liquors or rich food are necessary or salutary to the human frame.

NIGRITIA. Africa south of the great desert, with the exception of a Dutch colony at the cape of Good Hope, and three or four small settlements on the Atlantic coast, may all be comprehended under the general description of Nigritia, or Negroland. It extends from latitude 15° north to 30° south, and embraces about two thirds of the peninsula. Little is known concerning the interior, except what slave dealers learn from the negroes who bring their countrymen to market to the European factories on the Atlantic coast. The northwestern region is watered by several considerable rivers, of which but little is known concerning their sources or facilities for navigation. Their entrances are generally obstructed by bars, and no commercial object is to be obtained by ascending them.

The largest river of Africa, next to the Nile, is called by Europeans, Niger, and by the natives, Jobba. Much speculation has been had relative to its source and termination. Modern geographers have fixed its source in the mountains of the Moon, in the neighborhood of the western source of the Nile; and have given to it a westerly course towards the Atlantic, at the coast of Guinea; but no river enters the sea at that place sufficiently large to answer the description of the Niger. Some have supposed that its waters were absorbed by the sands and heat of the tropical regions.

Two species of large animals inhabit the rivers of western

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Africa; the crocodile and the hippopotamus. The former is common to other rivers where the current is slow. the waters turbid, and the adjacent country marshy. The latter is peculiar to this region. The largest hippopotamus which has ever been taken, measured seventeen feet in length, seven in height, and fifteen in circumference. The head is large in proportion to the body, being three feet and a half in circumference, with enormous tusks, the largest of which measured two feet in length, and weighed six pounds. The animal, though called the water horse, more nearly resembles an unwieldly ox. Its bellowing is a loud and frightful noise, between that of an ox and an elephant. When unprovoked, it is not ferocious, but when excited, its power is irresistible, destroying boats with his tusks, or upsetting them by raising them on his back. The animal is amphibious, and its principal food is of the vegetable kind, in search of which it leaves the water, and devours every green thing on the banks.

Negroland, with the exception of the Hottentot country, lies within the torrid zone, and is excessively hot, both from its position, and from the sand with which a large portion of it is covered. There are but two seasons, those of rain and drought. Whatever the earth produces, grows spontaneously, or with very little cultivation. Where the surface is not covered with deep sand, or parched with such drought as to prevent vegetation, the growth of every species of plant is rapid and vigorous. Where there is anything like cultivation, the seed is put into the ground at the close of the rainy season, and without further care, is fit for harvest in a few weeks. Trees grow to a great size, and among other wonders related by those who have described the country from what they hear, it is said that the hollow in the body of a single tree furnishes a dwelling for a whole family.

The bread fruit tree is the most valuable, and furnishes a substitute for grain. The inhabitants are inactive and indolent. In places where any labor is bestowed in cultivating the earth, it is estimated that twenty days is sufficient to satisfy the wants of a year. Whatever is done is chiefly by women, who here, as in all uncivilized countries, are little else than the slaves of the men, power being the only measure of right. Negroes who have arrived at such a state as to possess domestic animals, are at no labor to provide for their sustenance, and have no other care, than to watch, and to remove them from place to place, for pasturage.

Their habitations, other than the hollows of trees, are built of clay or mud, and in the shape of ovens, usually containing but one apartment. Many in the interior live in a state of perfect nudity. When clad, their covering consists of the skins of various animals, or of the coarsest fabrics. Their animal food

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consists of the flesh of every description of creatures, from the smallest reptile to the rhinoceros and elephant; and is eaten without the process of cooking, and with little labor in its procurement or preparation. With no anxiety for the support or preservation of their offspring, and with little restraint on the sexual connection, the negroes multiply rapidly, and though a constant and great drain has been kept up by the slave trade, and by the wars which that traffic has occasioned, the population increases.

RELIGION. In the portion of the country which the Arabs and Moors have visited, the religion is Mahometanism. But the great mass of the people are idolaters. They suppose that a fetich or divinity resides in some inanimate object, which they select and worship. The divinity residing in these idols presides over every canton or district, and over every family and individual. He is supposed to be endowed with intelligence, and with the knowledge of the secret thoughts and actions of his worshippers, and to be possessed of the power of doing them good or harm.

The priests or feticheres, being of their council are supposed to be privy to all which these divinities know, and to be acquainted with the most secret intentions and affairs of men. To the household or family fetich, is assigned the duty of narrowly inspecting the conduct of every individual, and of rewarding or punishing him according to his deserts. The reward consists in the multiplication of his women and slaves, and the punishment in the deprivation of them. The principal or guardian fetich, and the highest power and dignity in the country, resides at cape Coast, on a rock, which projects into the sea from the bottom of a cliff, on the top of which a castle is built. The rock itself is treated as a divinity. Yearly sacrifices are offered to it, with many ridiculous ceremonies and invocations. The officiating priest assures the people that he receives answers from the idol, as to what time will be most propitious for fishing, and for communicating this intelligence to the fishermen, each must reward him with a present according to his ability.

Much speculation has been had relative to the mental powers of the negro, and his capacity for improvement. As a race, phrenologists have pronounced them incapable of any high attainments, as well from the shape and configuration of their heads, as from their general appearance. Every feature of the negro, except his clear, white teeth, are abhorrent from all European ideas of personal beauty, or enlargement of intellect. One great cause of their degraded condition in their own country, is the total want of ambition, and of all incentives to mental improvement.

Satisfied with what the earth spontaneously produces, and

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with little desire to better their condition, both the body and mind becoming inactive in this enervating climate. Their wants and their ambition extend merely to satisfy the calls of nature, and are within their means. It is with the greatest difficulty that those who have attempted to enlighten them, could induce them to any exertion of their mental faculties. These general remarks, applicable to the negroes as a race, must be understood with many exceptions. There are among them many intelligent countenances, much shrewdness and sagacity, and many minds capable of high attainments.

Tombuctoo is the principal city or collection of negro inhabitants in central Africa. Geographers place it in latitude 16° north or in the neighborhood of the river Niger, 1300 miles by the shortest route from the nearest Atlantic or Mediterranean port. It is the general depot of trade between the interior of Negroland and the coast. This place and the adjacent country has of late excited considerable interest. Several European travellers have lost their lives in attempts to explore it. Tombuctoo is described by M. Cailbie, a French traveller, who visited it in 1828, as containing about 10,000 inhabitants, living in ill-built mud houses in the shape of ovens, and situated in a desert of moving sand, with a large river navigable for vessels of the size of small sloops in its neighborhood. Cailbie thought himself fortunate in escaping with his life, after a fortnight's residence in this city, and returned with no very favorable impressions of its inhabitants or condition.

This country is divided into a great number of principalities, the extent, names, and numbers of which, are unknown to Europeans. Their governments are said to be despotisms of the worst kind, the chief having the disposal of the lives and liberties of his subjects.

The following is a description of a visit by a Danish traveller to the king of Ashantee, one of the most powerful of the negro nations on the Gold coast of Guinea, near the British settlement of Sierra Leone.

"The monarch was seated on a throne of massive gold, under the shade of an artificial tree, with golden leaves His body was extremely lean and tall, and smeared over with tallow mixed with gold dust. A European hat, bound with broad gold lace, covered his head, and his loins were encircled with a sash interwoven with gold. From his neck to his feet, cornelians and agates were crowded in the form of bracelets and chains. His feet rested on a basin of gold. The grandees of his kingdom lay prostrate before him with their heads covered with dust. The monarch was here holding what may be called a bed, or a court of justice; a hundred complainants and accused persons were prostrate before him, and immediately behind them were twenty executioners with drawn sabres, awaiting the royal signal which

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generally terminating each cause by an order to decapitate the unsuccessful party."

The Danish envoy passing by a number of heads just severed from their bodies, approached the throne, and was addressed in the following gracious speech. "I would willingly detain you some months in my dominions to give you some idea of my greatness: hast thou ever seen any thing to be compared with it?" "No, lord and king, thou hast no equal in the world," was the reply. "Thou art right," said the monarch; "God in heaven does not much surpass me." The king then drank some English beer out of a bottle, and handed it to his guest, who excused himself by saying that the beer would intoxicate him. "It is not the beer which confounds thee," said the prince, "but the brightness of my countenance which throws the universe into inebriety."

The ferocity of these petty tyrants is not revolting to their subjects, who are equally sanguinary with themselves, and often made familiar with scenes of blood. When a prince dies, his subjects hasten to gratify that thirst for human blood, which they suppose still exists in the royal manes. On the death of the king of the Akims, a neighboring principality, his people sacrificed at his tomb his prime minister, 336 of his wives, and upwards of a thousand of his slaves. The victims were buried alive, their limbs being previously broken. The object of this barbarous sacrifice was to furnish the deceased monarch with a suitable retinue to attend him in the other world, and was sought for rather as an honor than otherwise. For several days the people held dances, accompanied with solemn music, around the tomb where these unfortunate objects were lingering in excruciating agony.

With some allowance for the exaggeration of travellers, who can relate without fear of contradiction, and with a difference proportioned to the magnitude of the principality, the foregoing may be considered as a specimen of the political and moral condition of central Africa. The smaller princes imitate, according to their ability, the practices of the larger.

DANCING. Dancing is not only a religious ceremony performed at funerals, but one of the chief amusements of the negro. A stranger to the feelings of avarice or ambition, he considers life as a brief interval which it is incumbent upon him to enjoy to the utmost. The inhabitants of a village wait with impatience for sunset, to commence their dance, which is frequently kept up during the whole night. Animated by the hoarse sound of the ivory trumpet, by the beating of drums, and the cadences of various voices, old and young take their part in this nightly festivity. It is almost the only excitement which raises the spirit of the negro from a life of listless inactivity.

It should be set down to the credit of this race, that where

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they determine not to rob or murder a stranger, they treat him with hospitality, bestowed in a kind and delicate manner. The whole exertions of the family are employed to console and relieve the fatigues of their guest. A separate hut, food for himself, and foliage for his beasts, are provided, with apologies for defects, and without any expectation of reward.

THE JAGAS. The lowest point of human degradation may be found in the eastern section of Negroland, directly north of the Hottentot country, among some wandering tribes called Jagas. They cultivate no land, possess no cattle except what they take in war. They live by invading the fertile countries of their neighbors, consume their produce, lay every thing waste within their reach, and go in search of other booty. They devour their prisoners, and as a mark of the highest honor, besmear their chief with human gore. Children are buried alive, and the nation preserves itself by raising the children of the neighboring nations, carried off generally at twelve years old. Aged men, and the sick, are abandoned without pity. The dead are buried in vaulted tombs, dressed in their richest clothes, and have as companions, two of their favorite wives, buried with them alive. The chief, at the great sacrifice, kills nine human victims with his own hands.

HOTTENTOTS. South of this country of the Jagas, and north of the European colony at the cape of Good Hope, is the country of the Hottentots, who appear to be a race somewhat different from the negroes of western Africa. They are not of a jet black, but of a dark brown, the eyes sunk, the face wide above, and ending nearly in a point, their cheek bones prominent, and hands and feet small. Covered with the skin of a sheep, antelope, or lion, which serves them for clothing by day, a bed by night, and a winding-sheet for the grave, they wander about, the better sort having a few cattle, which constitute their riches. Besmeared with grease of a black and red color, their appearance is that of filth and wretchedness. Their kraals or villages consist of a circular cluster of huts, in the shape of bee-hives, covered with mats; an opening in front, serves for a door, a window, and a chimney; and one apartment for all the purposes of the family. Their number is estimated at thirty thousand.

The lowest grade of this race, are the Bushmen, or Saabs. Armed with a bow, and a quiver full of poisoned arrows, and dressed in a sheep's fleece, with a belt, and furnished with the shell of an ostrich egg to carry water, and two or three grass mats, which, when extended on sticks, form a tent; they lead a wandering life in the sandy deserts, skirting the European colony on the north. They at times make their appearance among the colonists, sometimes in the capacity of beggars, and at others

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as thieves and robbers. All attempts to soften their manners, or better their condition, have proved ineffectual. Soon after

The Wild Bushman.

the colony became a British possession, an English gentleman, Mr. Campbell, explored the country with a view to a missionary enterprize; his report was favorable to the project, but it has not been carried into effect to any extent.

MADAGASCAR. Madagascar is the principal island on the south-eastern coast of Africa, and one of the largest in the world, being 900 miles long, and from 120 to 300 broad. It lies between 12° and 26° south latitude, and is separated from Africa by a sea 270 miles in width. Its population consists of 1,500,000 negroes; the situation of the island has exempted them in a great measure from being made slaves to the American colonists. The face of the country is greatly diversified, being intersected throughout almost its whole length, by a range of mountains, some of which rise a thousand feet above the level of the sea.

The climate, cooled by mountain breezes, is pleasant and

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salubrious, and much of the soil fertile. No permanent European settlements have been made on the island. The London missionary society have done much to improve the condition of these islanders. In 1820, ten natives were sent to England and placed under the care of this society for an education. This was carefully attended to, and the natives then sent back with other missionaries, accompanied with mechanics of various trades, to instruct the inhabitants. In 1826, there were 1700 children taught in the missionary schools, and the most important parts of the scripture have since been translated into the native language.

INFANTICIDE. The missionaries found in this island, superstition and idolatry in their most disgusting forms The practice of infanticide was one of the unhappy results. The Malagassars regard certain days as propitious, and others as unlucky or ominous. For an infant to be born on one of the latter days,

Infanticide in Madagascar.

is considered fatal; it is believed that the malignant influence of the day of its birth will accompany him through life, and render him a sorcerer, and a dangerous member of society, and that to raise him would be to nourish a serpent in their bosoms who would sting and destroy them. On the birth of a child, the great solicitude of the parents is to know its vintana, or destiny; whether the influence of the day be auspicious or malev-

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olent. This is to be learned by certain rules to be ascertained by astrologers. If the day is pronounced unlucky, the babe is declared to be a monster, whom it is meritorious to destroy.

Sometimes, when money is wanted, the astrologers discover by certain signs, that large offerings will render the day propitious, and avert the child's destiny. This intelligence is received with joy by the parents, and the offerings procured. When this is not the case, there must be exposure to death, or it must be actually inflicted. The exposure is by placing the naked, new born infant in a narrow path at the entrance of a cattle fold, with but just room for the cattle to pass. Several cattle are then driven violently over the child, while the parents stand by waiting the result. If the infant escapes unhurt, as is rarely the case, he is received with joy by its parents, as delivered from its unlucky destiny. In other cases, death is actually enjoined to be inflicted by the parents, by suffocation in a basin of water. In either case, the parents console themselves with the reflection, that they have performed a highly meritorious duty.

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CHAPTER XII.

America. How and when discovered by Europeans. Its extent. Original inhabitants. Conquered by Europeans. Their treatment. Principles of its division among the European powers Whole of America colonized. Treatment of the colonies by their parent countries. Liberation of America from colonization. How and to what extent effected. Controversies between the European powers concerning the boundaries of their respective colonies.

AMERICA. The continent of America is bounded on the east by the Atlantic and on the west by the Pacific ocean. On the south it comes nearly to a point at Cape Horn, in latitude 56° south. On the north the region is land as far as has been explored to latitude 75°, and to that extent is partially inhabited, the extreme north by the Esquimaux, a tribe of Indians of the lowest grade, and whose possessions have never been coveted or disturbed by Europeans. Various attempts have been made to find a water passage around the northern extremity of this continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean. They have all proved unsuccessful, and some of them attended with the loss of the exploring parties. It is ascertained that the region beyond latitude 75° is either a frozen ocean, or a land of perpetual winter. The extreme length of the continent is nine thousand miles; its breadth varies from sixty to two thousand. Its narrowest point is the isthmus of Darien, connecting the continent of North and South America. Since the emancipation of the Spanish American colonies, various projects have been formed, of opening a channel through this isthmus, from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean. At one time a contract was entered into between the republic of Guatimala and some adventurers in the United States, to effect this object. The contract has never been carried into effect; but the examinations to which it gave rise, have ascertained, that though attended with greater difficulties, and expenses than was apprehended, it is practicable.

The Europeans first discovered a small portion of this continent, near its central part, in 1496. It was then peopled by a great number of independent nations, or tribes, varying in degrees of civilization, from the lowest grade, to Mexican refinement approaching to the European. Their numbers are estimated, though with much uncertainty, at thirty millions. Va-

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rious conjectures have been formed as to the means by which the continent first became peopled, none of its inhabitants appearing to possess sufficient skill or resources by which they could transport themselves across the waters which divide it from the eastern continent. The more rational and generally admitted theory is, that they passed from the eastern shores of Asia to Western America, far to the north, where the continents approach within forty miles of each other. But whatever different opinions there might be in relation to the origin of the inhabitants, the European nations agreed in one point, that of a total disregard of their rights.

Occupied by Europeans. In something less than two centuries, the whole country was claimed, taken possession of, and its borders settled, by several of the powers of Europe. To prevent as much as might be, disputes among themselves about a territory to which none of them had a rightful claim, they established two principles relative to its division; one that the power possessing the coast at the mouth of a river, owned all the territory which supplied its waters; and the other that where one power had established a post at a particular point, on the coast, and another had established one at a distance on the same coast, the point of division was half way between them. These principles, equitable as between themselves, and just when applied to a vacant territory, did not prevent frequent collisions. From the period of the discovery and settlement of America, to that of its emancipation, the colonies furnished a fruitful source of contest between their parent countries, relative to their extent and boundaries. To quiet the consciences of the sovereigns of Europe for so flagrant an act of injustice as that of robbing the natives of their possessions, the aids of religion were resorted to. The Roman Pontiff, as the vicar of Jesus Christ, claimed to have dominion over the whole earth, and by virtue of his authority parcelled out all new discovered countries to Spain and Portugal, making a division between them by certain longitudinal limits; the countries to belong to them respectively, on condition that they converted the heathen who would submit, and extirpated the obstinate. According to the superstition of the times, this was a great blessing to the natives; the converted were paid more than a hundred fold for all their deprivations and sufferings on earth, by sharing with their oppressors the joys of heaven. The sooner the finally obstinate were cut off, the better for them, as their longer continuance in the world only served to enhance their guilt here, and their punishment hereafter. The earth is the Lord's, and his saints its only lawful proprietors, the heathen hold their possessions only by sufferance, and until Christians want them. Under the influence of these principles, and driven on by an insatiable thirst for gain, Spain practised the most cruel enormities upon the feeble and defence-

less inhabitants of the western continent; always accompanying her devastation, with a host of missionary Jesuits, laboring to convert the natives.

England being at this period considered as a refractory member at least, if not an apostate from the Roman catholic church, shared none of the munificence of the pope; but her enterprize and her navy gave her what the head of the church denied. She early discovered and took possession of the whole coast of North America, from the Floridas to the St. Lawrence. She did not make the same religious pretensions, as the catholic powers, but supposed that the spread of Christianity in its purity, as she held it, would abundantly compensate the heathen for any inconveniences they might suffer in consequence of the settlement of her subjects among them. She claimed that a considerable part of the territory was vacant, and might be rightfully taken up by the first occupant. Such of it as she admitted to be in the occupancy of the Indians, she professed to purchase. In these bargains, craft and power being opposed only by weakness and ignorance, she was the arbitress of the terms.

Another mode by which England became possessed of a considerable portion of the Indian country, was by conquest, resulting from wars, commenced either by the Indians to recover what in their view had been wrongfully taken from them, or by the English, in defence of what they considered they had fairly obtained. In some of these modes, England, in the course of the 17th century became possessed of the eastern coast of the North American continent, claiming as against other European powers, to extend her dominion to the Pacific ocean. In the mean time, France took possession of the countries bordering on the mouths of the Mississippi and the St. Lawrence, claiming the whole territory drained by these streams, and thereby confining the English to the country east of the Allegany. These conflicting claims produced the war of 1756, which terminated in 1763 in the loss to the French, of all their continental possessions in North America. From that period, the whole continent of America, with some unimportant exceptions, became subject to Spain and Great Britain.

TREATMENT OF THE COLONISTS. Having seen in what view the colonizing powers regarded the natives, it becomes an interesting inquiry how they considered the colonists, consisting of their own emigrating subjects. Here the principle that power overcomes right, was exemplified in its full extent. It would seem that the subjects of any nation emigrating from the parent domain, and forming colonies without expense to the government, should be considered either as having dissolved all connection with the mother country; not subject to its laws nor entitled to its protection, and as forming a distinct and independent state; or, that the foundation of a new colony should be

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treated as an extension of the original domain, and the colonists should be considered as possessing the privileges of natural born subjects. Neither principle was adopted in its extent; but one different from either, and calculated to promote exclusively the interests of the parent state, was substituted; to wit, that the home subjects should make the most of their foreign possessions at the expense of their emigrating brethren. Hence colonists, while their fellow subjects at home might trade with all the world, were debarred from any commercial intercourse with foreign nations, were restrained in their purchases and consumption to the productions of the parent state, and to their markets in the sale of the fruits of their industry. This single regulation deprived the colonist of the avails of one half of his labor, in the enhanced price of foreign articles, for his consumption, and in a depression of the market for his own productions, and all for the benefit of the commerce and manufactures of the parent state.

GOVERNMENT OF THE COLONIES. Another principal in the colonial system was, that they were to be governed by officers appointed at home, with permanent salaries raised from the resources of the colonies. In practice, these officers were so many petty tyrants, whose object was to accumulate a fortune to be spent at home. In the Spanish, French and Portugeese possessions, nothing in the shape of a colonial legislation existed. They were governed by laws made, and officers appointed at the suggestion of councils having charge of their colonial affairs, but ignorant of the condition and wants of the countries which they undertook to govern.

The principles of English colonization were somewhat more liberal, though terminating in nearly the same result. Three kinds of colonial government were adopted by that nation. First, the chartered government, where the king by charter conferred on the colonists, the right of choosing their governors, judges, and legislative assemblies, with power of enacting laws for the regulation of their internal affairs. Secondly, proprietary government, where the jurisdiction as well as the right of soil was conferred on a single proprietor, or a select and small number, who exercised the powers of government with the aid of a chief magistrate appointed by themselves, and a legislative assembly chosen by the settlers. And, thirdly, royal government, where the superior officers were appointed by the crown; these also exercised the powers of government with the aid of Legislatures chosen by the people. Though these systems apparently conferred on the colonists in a greater or less degree, a semblance of political privileges, they all ended in a subjection to the mother country. Commercial restrictions were rigidly enforced; manufactures for their own consumption, where they interfered with those of the parent state, were prohibited; coloni-

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al laws were abrogated at pleasure, and parliament claimed the right of taxing the colonies, and of making laws binding them in all cases whatever. Such a state of things between people deriving their origin from a common stock, could not be supposed to exist beyond the period when the oppressed could resist with any prospect of success. Previous to the year 1776, the whole American continent was in this condition, subject principally to two European powers, Spain and Great Britain. Its history for the subsequent half century exhibits a continued struggle on the part of the colonies, for the attainment of political privileges, and on the part of the parent states, to retain them in a condition of vassalage.

EMANCIPATION OF THE COLONIES. At the close of the year 1820, the whole American continent, with the exception of Nova Scotia and the Canadas in the north, and two or three small territories in South America, became enfranchised; and the government of the United States then declared, in language not to be misunderstood, that no further colonization would be permitted in America. The dissolution of the tie between the parent countries and their colonies, resolved society into its original elements, and exhibited a new era in political history. It presented the important questions to be settled by an experiment, how far a people are capable of governing themselves. And what degree of civil liberty they can enjoy without incurring the evils of anarchy. In the history of the republics growing out of these colonies, is to be found the best solution of these questions. Long before the period of the colonial emancipation, the primitive inhabitants of the continent had ceased to be of any political consideration. Their numbers had greatly diminished, and it had become well ascertained that they never would amalgamate with the Europeans so as to form one people.

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CHAPTER XIII.

United States. Extent. Population in 1775, 1790, 1840. Political condition at the Declaration of Independence. Origin of the state constitutions. General principles. Distribution of the powers of government. Division of the legislative body. Condition of the States from 1783 to 1787. Origin of the federal constitution. Convention of 1787. Its proceedings. Powers delegated to Congress; reserved to the States. Interfering jurisdictions; how to be settled. Federal constitution; how received and adopted. Proceedings of the Massachusetts convention. Amendments. Different constructions of the constitution. Bank of 1781; of 1816. Question as to the right of the States to tax the bank. American system. Its object; its origin; constitutional questions regarding it. Sectional differences. Views of the southern and of the northern states respecting it. Internal improvements. Constitutional questions regarding them. Views of their advocates; of their opponents. Opinions of the administrations of 1825 and of 1829, regarding them. Exposition of the term general welfare, in the constitution.

POPULATION. The territory of the United States, as extended by the purchase of Louisiana and the Floridas, reaches from the Gulf of Mexico to New Brunswick, a distance of fifteen hundred miles, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, three thousand miles. It is estimated to contain 2,300,000 square miles, equal to one half of Europe, and capable of furnishing sustenance for one hundred millions of people. The inhabitants, exclusive of Indians, according to the census of 1840, are,

Free whites,	14,189,108
Free colored,	386,245
Slaves,	2,487,213
	17,062,566
Number of persons on board vessels of war, in United States service, June 1st, 1840,	6,100
Making an aggregate of	17,068,666

Of the above population,

The deaf and dumb, number	7,659
The blind,	6,916
Insane and idiots,	27,434

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There are in the United States,

Persons employed in	mining,	- - - -	15,203
"	"	" Agriculture, - -	3,717,756
"	"	" Commerce, - - -	117,575
"	"	" Manufactures and trades,	791,545
"	"	" Navigation of the ocean,	56,025
"	"	" Navigation of canals, lakes, and rivers, - -	33,067
"	"	" Learned professions, -	65,236

There are 549,693 white persons, over 20 years of age, who can neither read or write; of these, the largest number, 58,787, is in Virginia, and the smallest, 526, in Connecticut.

The first actual enumeration was made in 1790, which gave the following number,

Free whites, - - - - - - - -	3,172,464
Free colored, - - - - - - - -	59,466
Slaves, - - - - - - - - -	697,897
	3,929,827
Increase in fifty years,	13,138,725

being over three hundred per cent. During this period, ten new states have been organized and admitted into the Union. viz. Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, from the territory northwest of the Ohio, ceded by Virginia to the United States; Michigan, from the territory east of the Mississippi and north of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois; Mississippi and Alabama, from the Georgia western territory, purchased by the United States, of Georgia; Louisiana, Missouri, and Arkansas, from the territory purchased of France, under the name of Louisiana; and Maine, by a division of the state of Massachusetts. The immigration of whites has been encouraged, and has greatly contributed to the increase of population, while for the greater part of the time, the importation of slaves has been prohibited, and slavery abolished in the northern States, and never tolerated in those north of the Ohio.

The enumeration of 1790 was the first which was ever made of the people of the United States. The congress of 1775 made an estimate of their number by inquiry of the members from the different states, which amounted to 2,448,000. Little is or can be known as to the number of Indians within the territory of the United States. They are estimated at four hundred thousand. They are gradually receding to the west, and their numbers diminishing.

EMANCIPATION OF THE BRITISH COLONIES. The act of the 4th of July, 1776, which severed the colonies from the parent state, left nearly three millions of people in the state of nature, as it is called; that is, without any government to direct their

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internal affairs, or any bond of union to protect them from external danger. The spectacle was novel; and the experiment an important one, not only to themselves, but to the future condition of the world. A sense of common danger united their energies against a common enemy. The continental congress, as it was then called, which first met at Philadelphia in September, 1774, and their successors, conducted an eight years' war against the most powerful nation of Europe, nearly to a close, without the semblance of any written compact, constitution, or form of government; such was the reluctance of the people against parting with any portion of power, that the articles of confederation, weak and inefficient as they were admitted to be, were not acceded to by all the states until March, 1781.

ORIGIN OF STATE CONSTITUTIONS. The people had another and equally difficult and delicate task to perform, that of establishing a system of internal or municipal regulations, and a magistracy to execute them. The condition of a people without a government, though called a state of nature, is a state in which they cannot exist for any length of time. Their first effort will be to deliver themselves from such a condition, and establish a government of some sort. The people of the states first resorted to committees, or provincial congresses and conventions, as they were termed, consisting of persons selected by the people in their primary assemblies, to manage their concerns, and without any definite powers or restrictions. This, as a temporary expedient, answered well for a short time. On the application of some of the states to Congress for advice relative to the management of their local concerns, that body, with great wisdom and foresight, recommended to the people of each state, to assemble in their respective town or county districts, and to choose delegates to a state convention, clothed with powers to form a constitution or frame of government for the state, designating the manner in which its magistracy should be elected, the powers with which it should be clothed, and the restrictions to which it should be subjected. This was the origin of constitution making. It was an untried experiment. History furnished no examples of the kind, the governments of the eastern continent having had their origin in accident, fraud, or force. New as this scheme was, it has been adopted at different periods by all the states, and attended with beneficial results. The state conventions, though meeting at different times, under different circumstances, and acting without concert, agreed on these general principles.

PRINCIPLES. That all power was derived from the people, and to be exercised for their benefit, by agents chosen by them for limited periods.

That there should be no hereditary or privileged orders, ranks, or titles.

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That the laws should operate equally upon all the citizens, whatever might be their condition; and that all should contribute their proportion to the public expenditure, according to their ability.

That nothing but crime, color, want of a certain small portion of property, or of a competent age, should deprive any citizen of choosing his rulers, or being himself elected to office.

POWERS, LEGISLATIVE. In filling up the outlines, the states took for their model, in many important particulars, the English constitution. They agreed that the powers of government should be distributed into three departments, legislative, executive and judicial; that the legislative branch should consist of two houses or chambers, each having a negative upon the other; that one branch should be a smaller and more select body, and in most instances, that it should be chosen for longer periods, and subject only to gradual changes: that the House of Representatives should be more numerous, more immediately connected with the people, and generally subject to more frequent renovations.

EXECUTIVE. That the executive power should be lodged in a single magistrate, denominated a governor, whose duty it should be to see that the laws were faithfully executed, to hold correspondence with the General Government, and with those of other states. In most instances, the duty of selecting the inferior executive officers was assigned to him, and in the greater number of constitutions, he had, what in modern phrase is termed a *veto*, a qualified negative upon the acts of the legislature; that is, if he disapproved of them, they must be submitted to a reconsideration, and unless passed by increased majorities, would fail to become laws. In the greater number of states, the chief magistrate is chosen by the people; in some, by joint ballot of both houses of the legislature.

JUDICIAL. The judiciary power was confined to a small and select number of judges, appointed either by the legislature, or the executive. It consisted of one supreme court of from three to five judges, and of such inferior courts as the legislature might, from time to time, direct. It was the province of this branch to interpret the laws, to judge of their constitutionality, and issue their mandates to carry them into execution. Each constitution provided for its own amendment by the people, and most of them have been altered. These were the general principles on which all the state constitutions were based; their particular varieties will be noticed in the description of each state. These governments, thus organized, contain all power within themselves, and are, in the language applied to the British parliament, omnipotent, except inasmuch as they have parted with a portion of this power to the General Government. Having

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thus formed constitutions for themselves, and appointed their agents to carry them into effect, the people are bound to obey such agents when exercising the powers with which they are constitutionally clothed.

ORIGIN OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES. The States were contiguous, and varying in size from a small province containing 1300 square miles, to a territory as large as the kingdom of France, and in numbers from fifty to seven hundred thousand. Many matters existed as the seeds of future controversy. They owed a large debt, the price of their independence, for which the faith of the whole was jointly pledged; the adjustment of its proportion among the members, was a matter of extreme difficulty. Their respective boundaries were unsettled. They had a joint interest in the unsettled lands, a fruitful source of controversy. These circumstances, together with the interest of commerce, and the general welfare, imperiously called for a controlling power over the whole. No political condition could be more ineligible than these States, without such a power. The United States tried the experiment during the disastrous period from 1783 to 1787, and at the expiration of that time, a general impression that something must be done to insure the benefits of independence, pervaded the whole community. This, enforced by a formidable insurrection in Massachusetts, threatening the overthrow of that government, induced the States to listen to a proposition from Virginia, to call a general convention to revise the articles of the confederation, in such a manner as to adapt them to the exigencies of the country. The proposition was accepted, and delegates appointed from all the States except Rhode Island. The States chose their ablest men, without distinction of party. The war, then recently terminated, had brought into view the most distinguished talents. General Washington had retired, with a determination repeatedly expressed, of never engaging in political life, and was known only as the farmer of Mount Vernon. A large portion of his friends solicited him to accept of an appointment to this convention, and to lend his name and influence on so great an occasion. Another portion, consisting of some of his officers of high grade, wished him not to accept; believing that the attempt would prove abortive, they wished him to reserve himself for another occasion, when, on the failure of the convention, they might rally under him and establish a strong, that is military government. He accepted; and to this circumstance probably is owing the success of the experiment.

MEETING OF THE CONVENTION. The convention assembled at Philadelphia, in May, 1787, and embodied an assemblage of talent rarely equalled. The occasion was an imposing one, involving not only a consideration of the present wants of the

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States, but the important question not yet affirmatively decided, whether a people were capable of governing themselves without the aid of a monarchy or a military despotism. The powers of the convention were limited to the object of amending the articles of the confederation. That instrument was merely a league, or compact, between independent States, possessing no intrinsic executive powers, and depending for its efficiency on the will of thirteen independent sovereignties, to be expressed by their respective legislatures. In the opinion of the convention, it was so radically defective, that nothing could be engrafted upon it adequate to the exigencies of the country. They therefore determined, after a deliberation of something more than a month, to lay it aside, and present to the people such a frame of government as in their opinion their condition required. Here their powers as agents or delegates from the States, ended. Two of the members from New York, for this reason, left the convention; and the residue proceeded to frame a constitution, "in order," (to quote the words of that instrument,) "to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity."

ITS PROCEEDINGS. On the general principle of the distribution of power into three branches, each to be committed to a separate magistracy; of a legislature to be composed of two houses; of a single executive; and of a select and independent judiciary, there was little question. In the organization of the legislative branch, an important question arose between the large and small States, which brought the convention to a stand, and had well nigh produced its dissolution without any result. The large States claimed a representation in proportion to their population; the small States, as independent communities, claimed an equal representation, without regard to numbers. The convention, in their proceedings, voted by States, each having one and an equal vote. Each maintained its position with great pertinacity, and for several days, without any prospect of a compromise. It was upon this occasion, that the venerable Doctor Franklin, a member from the city of Philadelphia, then upwards of eighty years old, remarked, that they had been seeking for wisdom every where except where it was to be found, and recommended that they should now apply to the Father of light for direction. Prayers were introduced; the clergy of the different denominations in the city earnestly prayed for a spirit of harmony and mutual condescension and forbearance in the convention, in which many of the members heartily joined. This had the effect of producing the object prayed for, from a natural cause. A compromise was effected, by mutual concession, by which the large States had a full representation, according to their numbers, in the most numerous branch, and the

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small States an equal representation in the Senate; and in the choice of the Executive, an influence compounded of both. In apportioning the House of Representatives, an important question arose between the South and the North. It was agreed that numbers should be the rule, but were slaves to be taken into the account? Though slavery was at this time partially tolerated in all the States, there were no slaves north of Maryland in sufficient numbers materially to affect the question. They constituted about one third of the population south of Pennsylvania. There had been a practice under the confederation, of apportioning the money to be raised for continental purposes, as it was then expressed, among the States, to consider five slaves as equal to three freemen; and this apportionment was finally agreed to, on the part of the Northern States, in regard to the representation and direct taxes. The second article provided for the election of a president by the people through the medium of electors; and the third for the appointment of a Judiciary.

The form of government being decided upon, the next, and the most difficult point, was to determine what powers were to be conferred upon it, and what were to be retained by the States; and so to define them as to prevent collision.

Powers of the General Government. To the General Government was assigned the power of the purse, that is, the power of raising revenue without limitation, as to manner, or amount, except that the duties should be uniform, and none laid upon exports. The objects to which the revenue was to be applied, are designated to be, to pay the debts and to provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States. On the latter expression, an ingenious question has been raised between the strict and liberal expounders of the instrument; the latter contending that it embraced every object to which money was applicable; and which in the opinion of the future administrators of the government, would conduce to the general good or welfare of the nation; and the former claiming that it was not intended to enlarge, but to qualify the preceding expressions. An honest difference of opinion still exists with regard to this question, but the prevalent impression seems to be, that as a general principle, it is best for the peace and happiness of the union to avoid the exercise of doubtful powers, and administer the government as far as may be, upon plain and admitted principles. The power of making war and peace, and of providing armies and navies, is given by the constitution, but the general control of the militia is reserved to the States; and is entrusted to the General Government only in three specified cases,—"to execute the laws of the union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions." An unlimited power is given to Congress to regulate commerce, and also "to coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin." Various other powers of minor

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importance are given, and the whole concluded with a general declaration, that Congress should have power to make all laws necessary and proper to carry them into effect. This expression neither enlarged nor varied the powers conferred by the constitution; and is remarkable for being the only expression in that instrument, which could be considered as superfluous, or without a definite effect.

RESTRICTIONS ON THE STATES. The restrictions laid upon the States, and which so far divested them of the character of independent sovereignties, were, "that they should not enter into any treaty, alliance or confederation, grant letters of marque and reprisal, coin money, emit bills of credit, make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts, pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with each other or with any foreign power, or engage in war unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as not to admit of delay." These restrictions were passed with less opposition, than almost any other parts of the constitution. Such had been the evils resulting from state paper money, tender laws, and such as varied the relations between debtor and creditor, that both the general and state conventions very readily agreed to those provisions which divested the States of such powers.

INTERFERENCE OF JURISDICTIONS. Various plans were proposed in the convention, which were deemed by their respective authors as best calculated to prevent a difference of construction, a clashing of interests, and an interference of jurisdiction, between the federal and state authorities; one was, that the governor of each state should be appointed by the president of the United States, with an absolute negative upon the laws of the state over which he was appointed to preside; another, that the laws of each state should be subject to a revision and to a negative, by Congress; these propositions, however, were rejected, as calculated to consolidate the government, and subvert state rights; and the more unexceptionable method was adopted of declaring "that the constitution and the laws of the United States made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which should be made, under the authority of the United States, should be the supreme law of the land, and the judges of every state shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary, notwithstanding;" and farther declaring, that the judicial power shall extend to all cases in law or equity arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; "and providing" for one Supreme Court, and such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The third article of the constitution, that which rela-

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ted to the Judiciary, also provided that its "jurisdiction should extend to all cases affecting public ministers, to cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies in which the United States should be a party; to those between two or more states; between a state and citizens of another state; between citizens of different states; between citizens of the same state, claiming lands under grants of different states; and between a state, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects. And that the trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, should be by a jury in the state where the crime was committed." To carry into effect this article, Congress, at their first session, established a supreme court, to consist of six judges, giving them jurisdiction of the cases specified in the constitution; the 25th article of the judiciary law, provided for the exercise of a controlling power by the supreme court over the highest state courts, by enacting, that in all cases where the constitution, laws or treaties of the United States were in question before those courts, and the decision was against their validity or operation in the highest state court to which the case should be carried, they might be brought for revision before the supreme court of the United States where the question only of the validity, or operation of the constitution, law or treaty, should be heard and determined, and its decisions should be final on that point. By the provisions of the article of the constitution relating to the judiciary, and the law giving it effect, it was thought that the supremacy of the general government was sufficiently established. The constitution provided that all debts and obligations contracted under the confederacy should be valid against the United States under the new governwent. It also provided for the admission of new states into the Union; and for its own amendment, as time and experience should point out its defects.

CONSTITUTION, HOW RECEIVED. The period from the promulgation of the constitution, (September, 1787) to its adoption by the ninth state, in June, 1788, was one of intense anxiety. The proceedings of the convention were with closed doors. The instrument which was the result of their labors, immediately underwent a critical discussion. Politicians of every grade, embracing almost the entire population of the country, engaged in the subject in the house, by the way and at every corner. The periodicals of the day teemed with political essays, some advocating, and others opposing the adoption of the constitution; the former, however, embracing much the greatest weight of talent. It was submitted to conventions in the several states, composed of delegates especially chosen for the purpose. That of Massachusetts convened in January, 1788, and their proceedings were regarded by all, as decisive of its fate. This body consisted of about three hundred and sixty members; many of them were advocates of paper money, and tender laws, then

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called the relief system; and about twenty of them had been insurgents in arms against their state government. A majority at their first meeting were evidently opposed to the constitution; and its final adoption was owing to the influence and skill of one man. Governor Hancock had been chosen a delegate from Boston, and president of the convention, but had been prevented by ill health from attending. Near its close, the friends of the instrument brought him out; and he rose in his place and proposed the adoption of the constitution, with a long list of amendments, calculated to allay the fears of its opponents, but not varying its operation. He was unquestionably the most popular man in the state, and best understood political management. The measure had the intended effect. The constitution was adopted by a majority of nineteen votes. This scheme of governor Hancock was resorted to by the friends of the constitution in other states where its success was doubtful, and was the means of its final adoption. On the 21st of June, 1788, the instrument took effect by the adoption of New Hampshire, the ninth state; and operations commenced under it, on the 4th of March, 1789.

RATIFIED WITH AMENDMENTS. The ratifications of several of the states were accompanied with propositions for amendments, amounting in the whole to about one hundred. The first Congress selected several of those which went to deny to the general government the right of abusing its own powers, and recommended them to the states for adoption. Ten of them passed through the forms required by the constitution, and became component parts of that instrument.

AMENDMENTS ADOPTED. Soon after the organization of the judiciary, a suit was brought in the circuit court by a citizen of South Carolina against the state of Georgia, on a state note. This impugned a principle deemed an essential attribute of sovereignty, to wit, that the supreme power was not liable to be sued; grounded upon the idea, that it would be a kind of suicidal operation for the sovereign power to render judgment against itself in its own courts, and also upon the mistaken notion that it will always do right. The process was served upon the governor, and the suit sustained in the supreme court. The state did not appear, but passed an act declaring it felony for any person to attempt to carry the judgment into execution within its jurisdiction. The decision excited alarm as being in derogation of the reserved powers of the states, and as tending to reduce them to the condition of private corporations. An amendment was proposed at the session of Congress next following the final termination of the suit, and carried through the requisite forms. It is the eleventh article of the amendments, and provides, "that the judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of

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another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state." This is the only amendment which in any respect has varied the powers of the constitution.

In consequence of the equi-vote for Jefferson and Burr in the presidential election of 1800, the constitution was so amended as to require the electors of president and vice president, to designate in their ballots the persons for whom they voted for each office; with these unimportant amendments, the constitution remains as it came from the hands of the convention.

Although the constitution was formed by intelligent and patriotic men, and is viewed as highly creditable to themselves, as the result of a spirit of mutual concession; yet it ought not, perhaps, to be considered strange that conflicting opinions concerning the extent of the powers delegated by it to the general government, have been displayed and will continue to exist; formed, as this country is, of different interests, and moved by the force of circumstances as the citizens of various portions of it are, to look at things in dissimilar lights; the different views of constitutional power seem to be the result of natural causes, and if the people continue to practice the forbearing spirit which actuated them when forming the present bond of union, the patriot may well hope that it will long continue to exist, and that the glory and prosperity of this republic may greatly advance the cause of liberty throughout the world.

Soon after the adoption of the constitution, the question was raised whether Congress had power to charter a bank.

CONSTITUTIONAL QUESTIONS. BANK. The Secretary of the Treasury, at the second session of the first Congress recommended the establishment of a Bank of the United States. The benefits immediately expecting to result to the government, were, to furnish a safe place of deposit for the public moneys, and a cheap and safe transmission from the place of collection to that of disbursement. It was said that this must be done through the medium of agents, and that banks with large capitals, and extensive business, could be much more safely trusted; and could do the business with more ease and on better terms than individuals; and if proper and necessary to resort to banks for this purpose, it was altogether preferable to have one deriving its authority from, and responsible to, the government; one into the arcana of whose transactions the Secretary could always look, and whose operations, so far as the public safety required, the government could control. At this period the banking incorporations chartered by the states, were few in number, and their credit not fully established. The principal benefit expected to result to the people at large, was, that it would furnish a circulating medium of established credit, and of a uniform value throughout the United States; and incidentally, that it would promote commerce, and aid the collection of the

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revenue, by furnishing the importing merchants and others the means of obtaining discounts and extending their credit. The Secretary discussed at large, and with much ingenuity, the question, both as to its constitutionality, and its utility. At this period the financial plans of this officer were uniformly supported by the federalists, and as uniformly opposed by the anti-federalists or republicans. In the view of the latter, the power was not given in express terms, or by necessary implication, inasmuch as such an institution was not necessary for the operations of government; and that the construction contended for, would render the General Government one of unlimited powers, there being none but what at some period it might be convenient to exercise. The opponents of the measure laid much stress upon the fact, that a proposition was made in the convention to invest Congress with the power of chartering corporations, and was negatived. On recurring to their journals it was found, that a proposition was made to give Congress this general power, and negatived on the ground that it more properly belonged to the state authorities. This, however, as the friends of the bill supposed, did not debar Congress from creating a corporation necessary or proper for the purposes of the government. A bill passed both houses, chartering a bank for twenty years, with a capital of $10,000,000, two of which was subscribed by the government. On the constitutional question, the president required the opinions of the heads of departments, and the attorney general. They were equally divided; the secretary of state and the attorney general, (Jefferson and Randolph) being opposed; and the secretaries of the treasury and war, (Hamilton and Knox) in favor of the bank. General Washington being of the latter opinion, signed the bill, and the bank went into immediate operation. The question as to its constitutionality, so far as it was involved in suits against its debtors, was uniformly decided in favor of the bank. The charter expired by its own limitation, in 1811. The administration had now fallen into the hands of those who were originally opposed to the bank, and an application for the renewal of its charter was denied.

SECOND BANK. During the period of the war of 1812, and until 1816, the United States were without a bank. Money was borrowed with difficulty and at a great sacrifice. Government securities bearing six per cent. interest, were sold at a discount of twenty per cent. Numerous state banks were created to supply the deficiency. Some of them with fictitious capitals, consisting of the private notes of the stockholders; and the country was innundated with a flood of paper issued by the state banks, who refused to redeem their bills with specie; some of it was entirely worthless, and some received only at a great discount. The revenue was collected in a depreciated paper, and of different value at different ports; thereby, in effect, vacating that

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provision in the constitution, which directs that the duties should be the same in all places. The government also suffered an entire loss of a million and a half of dollars, in the bills of bankrupt banks. A number of the original opponents of a national bank became its advocates, and Mr. Madison having yielded his constitutional scruples to the concurrent opinion of every branch of the government, and to the wants of the community, a new bank was chartered in 1816, with a capital of $35,000,000; of which the government took $7,000,000, and for which the stockholders paid a bonus of $2,000,000, and in addition to the public duties performed by the former bank, this was to pay the holders of public stock, and the pensioners their demands, free of expense.

This institution, agreeable to the provision of its charter, established branches in most of the states. The state authorities claimed the right of taxing the branches within their respective limits, at pleasure. The state of Ohio laid a tax of sixty thousand dollars on each of the two branches established in that state, for the avowed purpose of driving them from its limits. About the same time, the state of Maryland laid a tax on the branch established in that state. These proceedings gave rise to another constitutional question, in addition to the original one; to wit, whether such a tax was an infringement of its charter. The supreme court decided that a power in the states to tax the branches at pleasure, and thereby in effect to prevent their establishment, was inconsistent with the provisions of the bank charter. The reasoning by which the court arrived at the latter conclusion, though somewhat diffuse, was contained in a single proposition; that a power to create and a power to destroy the same thing, cannot exist together in different bodies; therefore, Congress having the power to create a bank, being admitted, the power in the states virtually to destroy it by taxation, does not exist.

In December, 1829, the President, in his opening message, introduced the subject to congress in the following terms: "The charter of the bank of the United States expires in 1836, and its stockholders will most probably apply for a renewal of their privileges. In order to avoid the evils resulting from precipitancy in a measure involving such important principles, and such deep pecuniary interests, I feel that I cannot in justice to the parties interested, too soon present it to the deliberate consideration of the legislature and the people. Both the constitutionality and the expediency of the law creating this bank are well questioned by a large portion of our fellow citizens; and it must be admitted by all, that it has failed in the great end of establishing a uniform and sound currency.

"Under these circumstances, if such an institution is deemed essential to the fiscal operations of the government, I submit to the wisdom of the legislature, whether a national one, founded

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upon the credit of the government, and its revenues, might not be devised, which would avoid all constitutional difficulties, and at the same time secure all the advantages to the government and country, that were expected to result from this bank."

The bank presented a memorial for the renewal of its charter, at the first session of the 22d Congress, in January, 1832, and a bill passed both houses after a full examination of its condition and conduct, to that effect. It was negatived by the president, and failed of becoming a law, for the want of a constitutional majority of two thirds. There still exists a great diversity of opinion, both as regards the constitutionality and expediency of a national bank, and the subject furnishes a fruitful theme for controversy.

Another point in which there have been radical differences of opinion, and on which important questions relating to the powers conferred by the constitution have arisen, is the American System, as it has been called,—that of protecting the industry of the country against foreign competition. The different interests of the north and the south, have given to this question a sectional character. The states of the north-east, with a comparatively sterile soil, producing no staple, are a commercial and manufacturing people.

AMERICAN SYSTEM. Arguments were reiterated and enforced on both sides, with great ability, but without effect. At length, the near approach of the extinguishment of the public debt, gave a new turn to the argument. The United States were about to present the novel spectacle of a great nation free from debt, and possessing a fund of the value of a hundred millions of dollars in public lands unappropriated, and at the disposal of government. The south contended, that the protecting duties, not being wanted for the purposes of revenue, could no longer be borne, or constitutionally continued; that the duties should be reduced to the wants of government, and be laid ad valorem; at least that there should be no discrimination in favor of those articles which were or might be produced in the United States. The constitutional question was again argued with great ability. The advocates of protection claimed, that the encouragement of domestic industry was a distinct and independent subject, was one of the purposes for which the constitution was formed, and one which had been constantly kept in view in every period of its administration. They admitted that the revenue ought to be reduced to the actual wants of the government, but claimed that the duties should be taken off of those articles which did not interfere with the productions of the country, and that a tariff should be so modified as to leave the protecting system unimpaired. The controversy was fast ripening into an armed opposition to the law, when it was suddenly quieted by the bill of compromise of 1833. The expira-

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tion of the compromise act, and the passage of the tariff act of 1842, has led to a revival of this discussion; the generally received opinion appears to be, that sufficient revenue can be obtained through a moderate and discriminating tariff, which in its operation will afford encouragement to home industry.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. The subject of internal improvements was another on which an important difference of opinion arose, on the construction of the constitution. Clearing harbors and securing them by breakwaters, clearing the mouths of navigable rivers, and inlets from the sea, and the establishment of light houses, beacons and buoys, for the security of navigation, were generally admitted to be objects proper for the expenditure of the general government. They were distinguished from other objects of internal improvement, inasmuch as they tended to diminish the risks and facilitate the importation of goods, to cheapen them to the consumer, and thereby enhance the revenue by an increased consumption. Without looking for a specific grant of any powers to this effect, their general utility was so obvious as not to require any particular investigation. Beyond these, the advocates of a strict construction of the constitution were unwilling to go. However much roads, canals, and river navigation might be needed, in their view, they ought to be left to individual or state enterprise. A further extension of the principle, to which there could be no limit but the discretion of Congress, had a tendency to draw all the powers within the sphere of the General Government.

VIEWS OF ITS ADVOCATES. Another portion of the American people believed that the constitution was in some degree intended to adapt itself to the wants of the people as they should occur in future time; it having ordained a form of government with its various administrators, all chosen by, and accountable to the people, for a faithful discharge of their trust, and directed them to provide for the general welfare, it clearly embraced, as they supposed, the subject of internal improvements, extending to roads, canals, and other modes by which intercourse between different parts of the Union might be facilitated. The subject therefore was considered by them as belonging to the General Government.

ITS OBJECTS. 1. As a means of defence especially applicable to the northwestern frontier. The safe, cheap, and speedy transportation of the materials of war, from the seaboard to any point of attack, was considered preferable to any fortification. The same principle was applicable to the Atlantic coast; an inland communication between its different points, while its navigation was obstructed by an enemy, was essential, and the greater facility with which it could be had, the greater the security.

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2. In a political view, as strengthening the bond of union between the distant parts of the United States. Distances are more accurately estimated by the time and expenses necessary to overcome them, by the intervening miles. Bringing the distant parts of the country more in contact, making them acquainted with each other, and with their mutual wants, and the means possessed by each of supplying the other, has a powerful, constant, and increasing preservative operation, and is peculiarly important in a government depending on popular opinion.

3. As a means of improving the revenue, by increasing the consumption of goods subject to impost. This, in the interior, is regulated in a great degree by the ease with which goods can be transported from the seaboard. Moneys expended on this object, will, to a considerable extent, be replaced by an increased consumption.

4. Another view in which it is supposed that the public treasury will be fully remunerated, is in the increased value of the domain. The public lands of the west in round numbers, are estimated at two hundred millions of acres; deriving much of their marketable value from their accessibility to the seaboard. Every dollar judiciously expended in facilitating the approaches to them, it was calimed, would be more than compensated by their enhanced value.

EXPOSITION OF THE TERM, GENERAL WELFARE. Connected with this subject, was the discussion of the term, *general welfare*, as used in the constitution. The advocates of internal improvement and liberal construction, claimed that they were substantive words, used for the purpose of extending the powers of Congress to cases which could not then be foreseen or defined. The strict constructionists and advocates of state rights, contended, that they were not designed to enlarge the particular powers specified in other parts of the instrument, or to authorize their application to other objects. Mr. Madison, the only surviving member of the convention, on being applied to, stated, that according to his recollection, they were incidentally introduced from the articles of the confederation, and were not intended to enlarge the powers of Congress, specifically defined.

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CHAPTER XIV.

Classes of inhabitants. Whites. Free Blacks. Attempts to improve them. Colonization society. Its objects, and present condition. Liberia. Its present condition. Slavery. Indians; estimate of their numbers; their condition; their title to the domain. Public domain. Its extent and value. How acquired. Public debt. Its amount at different periods. Whole amount of moneys raised and paid since the commencement of the government. Revenue and expenditure for 1840. *Currency. Origin of banks. Banking system and credit in the United States. Bank of Venice; of England; of North America. Mr. Hamilton's report on banks. Increase of state banks. Commerce. Amount of imports; of exports. Post office. Military establishment. Army of the Revolution. How disbanded. Army of* 1798; *of* 1812. *Present amount of the army; objects of a military peace establishment. Military academy. Militia. Their number; power of the general government respecting them. Navy; acts of Congress providing for it. Its condition in* 1812. *Its achievements during the war. Its condition in* 1837, *and annual expenditure. Mint.*

CLASSES OF INHABITANTS. The inhabitants of the United States are of four classes. White citizens; free persons of color; slaves, and Indians. Of the first class, every male citizen of twenty-one years old, and upwards, with the exception of persons convicted of crime, and in some of the states, persons wanting a small amount of property, is an elector to the highest offices of the general and state governments. Every state prescribes for its citizens the conditions of this franchise, but the exceptions are so few, that universal suffrage may be considered as the prevailing principle. Every citizen enjoys equal privileges. His life, liberty, and property, are alike under the protection of law. No person, however high his station, can trespass upon the rights of the humblest, without subjecting himself to make ample satisfaction. The chief magistrate of the United States, and every subordinate officer, are accountable to the people for their official conduct, and amenable to the law equally with the private citizen. No tax, imposition, or duty, can be laid by the general or state governments, but what applies equally to all, and no person's property can be taken for any public purpose, without adequate compensation. Every office in the general and state governments, is open to all, with the exception, that in some of the states, a small amount of property

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is a requisite qualification for some state offices. No person inherits any office, privilege, distinction, or title from his ancestor, and as a general rule, estates undisposed of by will, descend equally to all the children. This is what is meant by that expression in the declaration of independence, and in the corresponding ones in the bills of rights prefixed to the constitutions of several of the states, "that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

FREE BLACKS. The free people of color in the United States form a distinct grade or caste. They are composed of negroes who have been emancipated, and their offspring, including all persons in whom there is any tinge of negro blood. The marriage of a white person with a negro, degrades the former in the estimation of society, to the standard of his or her companion, without at all elevating the latter. The civil rights of these people, while remaining in the states where they were born, are the same with the whites, with the exception, in some of the states, of electing and being elected to office; and for this they are compensated by an exemption from military duty. In the constitutions of twelve of the states, there is nothing which deprives this class of inhabitants from the right of suffrage, or prevents them from being chosen to office. But such is the law of custom, that the elective franchise is seldom exercised by them; and but one authenticated instance is to be found, of a negro representative in a state legislature.

A large portion of free blacks seek a subsistence in the non-slave-holding states; they congregate in considerable numbers in the large cities. Their means of subsistence is chiefly menial service.

ATTEMPTS TO IMPROVE THEM. Instances are not wanting, where free negroes have by honest industry, acquired a respectable portion of property, and by an upright course of conduct, have established for themselves a fair character; for which they are entitled to the greater credit, on account of the difficulties which they have to encounter. But no amount of property honestly acquired, or fairness of character, entitles the negro, or any person having any tinge of negro blood, to be an associate with the whites. Nature seems to have placed an insuperable barrier between them. In the large cities of the north, where sufficient numbers can be congregated, religious societies are formed by the aid and encouragement of the whites, and are productive of much good. They must depend upon teachers of their own color. It is readily admitted that they have the same spiritual wants with the whites, but no clergyman has been

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found willing to take the permanent charge of a black congregation.

One mode in which it has been attempted to better the condition of this caste, has been to establish a college, and academies appropriated solely to their instruction; and to give them a liberal education. One difficulty attending this project in the outset, has been that no community has been found willing to have such an institution in its neighborhood. An attempt was once made to establish a negro college in New Haven, near Yale college, one of the most flourishing seminaries in the United States. But the general feeling was so strongly against it, that it was abandoned. The same feeling has operated against negro academies. The utility of such institutions, to the negroes themselves, if practicable, is generally considered as questionable. It is argued, that the educated negro, admitting him to have the requisite talents, cannot, in this community, obtain a professional living, as a clergyman, lawyer, physician, or statesman, he must therefore seek it, with others of his color, by menial service, or manual labor, for which his education has disqualified him. No object is more to be pitied than a man of fine talents, and refined education, seeking a subsistence by these means; and until the order of nature is reversed, negroes cannot expect to obtain professional employment in a community of whites. Equally unpropitious to their own comfort, is a refined boarding school education to black females. It will not introduce them into the society of the whites, or procure them husbands from any but their own caste. They must return them to the services of the kitchen, with all their taste for music, painting, novel reading, and needle work. Such at least are the views of a vast majority of the white population, on this subject.

COLONIZATION SOCIETY. Another, and as many think, a much more eligible mode of bettering the condition of this race, and one that has been in operation for some time, is that of removing them to the land of their origin. One propitious circumstance attending this plan is, that it unites the north and the south; it being the only point in which they were ever united on the subject of the black population. In 1816, a voluntary association was formed at Washington, consisting of persons of high standing, from various parts of the Union, under the name of the *American Colonization Society;* whose professed and only object was, to remove the free people of color in the United States, with their consent, to Africa. The beneficial results expected from this institution, were,

ITS OBJECTS. 1st. To better the condition, and elevate the character of this race, by providing them a home in the country of their fathers, where they might enjoy uninterruptedly, the blessings of civil liberty, civilization and christianity, where

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schools and religious instruction might be had, and where they might govern themselves in a republican form, at the earliest practicable period.

2d. A removal of this unprofitable and unpromising portion of their inhabitants from the United States.

3d. Encouragement to emancipation, by providing a place to which its subjects may be removed, so that they might not endanger or prejudice the country where they had been slaves.

4th. Providing a place to which negroes rescued from slave ships might be transported, and set at liberty.

5th. Extending the blessings of civilization and christianity to such portions of Africa as might fall under the control or influence of the colony.

6th. The suppression of the slave trade on the coast, in the neighborhood of the establishment. And,

7th. As incidental to the other objects, the establishment of a new and lucrative branch of commerce.

LIBERIA. All these objects have to some slight extent, been accomplished. The ultimate end of the society was to remove the whole free colored population from the United States, by providing a place adequate for their reception, and proving by experiment, that the thing was practicable, and thereby inducing the general and state governments to embark in the enterprize. The object to this extent has not been found practicable. The greater part of this population in the non-slaveholding States, are not disposed to leave the country. However degraded their situation, they seem to be contented, and to prefer it to the hazards of emigration. A country has been selected, 150 miles in length, on the western coast of Africa, and extending a considerable distance into the interior, to which the name of Liberia is given. Monrovia, its principal town and port, is in latitude 6° north. The first emigration from the United States to this territory, effected by the society, was in February, 1820, consisting of 88 persons. The whole number of souls in the colony in 1839, was something more than five thousand. There are in Liberia eighteen churches and forty clergymen.

The neighboring nations, though at first jealous and hostile, have become more friendly, and carry on a considerable trafic with the country. The principal articles of production and export, are ivory, camwood, gold, coffee, tortoise shell, and the hides and teeth of the sea horse. The settlement consists of four villages, with as many schools, and houses of worship. These operations have had no sensible effect in diminishing the free colored population of the United States. Little more can be done by the exertions of the society, than has already been accomplished, to wit, that of providing a place, and pointing out a mode in which the main object may be effected.

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SLAVERY. The slave population in the United States in the ten years intervening between the fifth and sixth enumerations, increased something more than twenty-three per cent. without any aids from importation.

Personal slavery, or the claim of one person to the services of another during life, had its origin in a remote period, when it was deemed a universal principal of warfare, that the victor had a right to take the life of his vanquished enemy; and having the absolute power of life, it was deemed a favor to the prisoner to commute it for perpetual slavery, with an absolute dominion over the person of the slave. On this principle, slavery became a gainful traffic, and wars were undertaken, the main object of which was to obtain prisoners to sell. The principle, that the lives of prisoners were not at the disposal of the victors, but that they were to be exchanged or released at the close of the war, gradually made its way, as civilization progressed, and the idea of enslaving them was reluctantly, and at later periods, given up.

INDIANS. The most accurate estimate of the number of Indians on the territory of the United States, gives an aggregate of something more than three hundred thousand. In the regions remote from the white settlements, very little can be known as to their amount. The North American Indian, as he was when his country was first discovered and taken possession of by Europeans, exhibits the human character in its natural condition, unimproved and untainted by the arts and vices of civilized society. The passions to which human nature is subject, here have an unrestrained operation. Every one is the avenger of his own wrongs, whether real or imaginary. The passions of revenge and hatred are consequently predominant and uncontrolled, inducing a state of private quarrelling, and petty warfare between small tribes. Their friendships are also strong; and their hospitalities liberal, according to their means. Their original clothing consisted of such garments as they could put together from the skins of wild animals. Their habitations, called wigwams, consisted of stone, mud, dirt, bushes, and branches of trees, such as they could construct without the aid of iron. Their utensils and implements of husbandry consisted of rudely shaped stone, and pointed wood, hardened by fire, and formed into various figures, for the purposes of cooking and tilling the ground. With such means they could obtain but little from the earth. Their principal support was drawn from the waters and the forests. Their chief weapon, both for war and for the chase, was the bow and arrow, which they managed with great skill and precision.

The life of the Indian, especially of the male, is one of listless indolence, unless engaged in war or hunting. Females are compelled to bear the burdens, and do the drudgeries of the

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tribe. Their wars were characterized for stratagem and ambuscade. An Indian seldom attacks an enemy unless he can take him by surprise; if he fails in this, he retires and waits another opportunity. Unable to support or confine prisoners, they are all butchered on the spot, unless some are saved to be afterwards roasted and devoured. In some instances, a prisoner is preserved for the purpose of being adopted into the family or tribe of the victor, to supply the place of one slain.

THEIR CIVIL GOVERNMENT. The Indians can scarcely be said to have any ideas of civil government, or the regulation of individual conduct, by the whole community or any select portion of it. They have few notions of separate or individual property. The wigwam, constructed by the joint labors of one or several families, was their joint property so long only as they inhabited it; when they left it, it fell to the next occupant. Their game, generally taken by their joint efforts, was the common property of all who assisted in obtaining it. Laws to secure the possession, or regulate the descent of property were unnecessary and unknown. So far as any notions of government existed, it was in the nature of a pure democracy. A council, consisting of the chiefs, head men, and warriors of the tribe, without any definite notions regarding the qualifications of its members, convened to decide questions of war and peace, to select men to conduct their enterprises, and to compose differences among their members.

THEIR RELIGION. It has been a subject of much curious inquiry, and learned discussion, what nature teaches man in relation to invisible beings and a future state. This is best learned by visiting the hut of the uninstructed Indian, the child of nature, and inquiring out his ideas regarding those things. There is much uniformity in their opinions, because they are few and simple. The North American Indians believe in one supreme God, to whom they attribute all good, and in the immortality of the soul. They also believe in an intelligent evil principle, or being, to whom they attribute all the evils which they suffer. This being, though less in power, acts independently of the good being. They endeavor to propitiate him by prayer and sacrifice. They believe, also, in subordinate spirits, both good and evil, who have an influence in the affairs of the world, and to whom they pay a kind of religious homage. The world they suppose to have been created a great while ago, and placed on the back of a huge animal, without extending their inquiries so far as to find a footstool for its supporter. Their future state is a material paradise, abounding with fish and game, and affording the same occupations and enjoyments as the present life, though in a much higher degree. In accordance with this idea, they bury with their chiefs and warriors, the implements of husbandry,

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and of the chase. They also believe in a future state of punishment, to which cowards, and those who have offended the good Spirit to such a degree as to induce him to deliver them up to the dominion of the evil one, are doomed for a limited time, until they are sufficiently purified to render them fit inhabitants for their paradise. In this Indian creed are to be found many of the rudiments of the christian faith. A Supreme Being, the author of good, and subordinate good beings; an evil being and his subordinate agents; and a future state, the condition of which is affected by the conduct and character of a man in the present life.

TREATMENT OF THEM BY THE EUROPEANS. The foregoing is a brief outline of the condition of the aboriginal inhabitants of this country, at the period of the first advent of the whites. This produced important changes. It introduced intoxicating liquors and the small pox among them; they purchased the former at any price the European chose to set, and drank without restraint, and without regard to consequences. It had the usual effect of producing disorder and violence. The small pox spreading among them, without any knowledge of the proper method of treatment, and inflamed by intoxication, proved almost universally fatal. Their game diminished, and retired before the improvement of the whites, and the Indians also diminished, and retired with an equal pace.

The introduction of iron, and fire arms, was another consequence of the European settlements. The remaining Indians, lingering in the neighborhood of the whites, necessarily became, to a certain degree, agriculturists. They were enabled to till their land with greater facility, and acquired to some extent, the habits, good and bad, of civilized life. The Indians had the sagacity to see in the progress of the whites, and in the eagerness with which their lands were sought, the ultimate extinction of their race. One sentiment pervaded the whole Indian population—that of a deadly hostility towards the Europeans. The use of fire arms made them more formidable enemies. This hostility, together with a love of plunder, brought on a border warfare of an exterminating character, which continued, with little intermission, from 1783 to the decisive victory of General Wayne in 1794. That event may be considered as having put an end to Indian wars; subsequent hostilities have been rather in the nature of predatory incursions, than of settled war.

THEIR TITLE TO THE LAND. The condition of this race, thus circumstanced, early attracted the attention of the government under the constitution. The first question which presented itself was, what was the nature and extent of their title. They claimed the whole territory not then in the actual occupa-

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tion of the whites, as theirs, by immemorial possession. There was perhaps about one Indian to a square mile of wilderness. They had seen, and in their hunting excursions had roamed over a considerable portion of it; much of it they had never seen. The country to some extent around their wigwams, that where they had buried their dead, and that on which they had bestowed any cultivation, was theirs, by a title that could not be disputed.

By the constitution, the charge of defending the frontier devolved upon the General Government, and as a necessary consequence, the right of regulating the intercourse, and of negotiating with the Indians. This charge was assigned to the department of war. The Indians had an utter aversion to a subjection to the municipal laws of the States within whose chartered limits they resided. They could but very imperfectly understand them. Their habits, and manner of life were all against such restraints. The policy adopted towards them, was in conformity to these views, to consider, and treat them as independent communities, having their own laws, customs and usages, subject to the supervision of the United States so far only as to protect them from imposition. Without controverting their title to the territory not in their immediate occupation, the object of the government was to purchase their claim to it, at its full value to them; and to pledge the public faith for the free enjoyment of their reserved lands. At the same time, efforts were made to bring them to some degree of civilization.

ATTEMPTS TO CIVILIZE THEM. Their condition also at this period attracted the attention of benevolent societies in the United States. The first attempts were directed to sending missionaries among them to preach the gospel by means of interpreters, or such teachers as could be found, who imperfectly understood their language. It was soon perceived to be impossible to make a roving Indian understand the sublime truths of the christian religion by such means. Whatever faint impressions might have been made, soon wore off. A different course was then adopted; permanent missionary stations were established, where the first object was to induce the Indian to forsake his roaming life, and to cultivate the earth for a subsistence. Implements of husbandry were furnished them with this view. The savage being in some measure tamed, and induced to remain at home, more readily became the recipient of religious instruction. The government aided the exertions of the missionary societies, by annual grants of ten thousand dollars for the purpose of civilizing the Indians. These united efforts had considerable effect, and raised the Cherokee nation to a degree of civilization before unknown. They also had the effect of attaching the Indians more strongly to their homes, and thereby

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counteracting the main object of the whites, that of ultimate possession of the whole territory.

EXTENSION OF STATE JURISDICTION OVER THEM. In most of the States, civil jurisdiction was extended over the territory occupied by the Indians, as they diminished in numbers and importance, without question, and without objection on their part. If they injured a white man they were subject to prosecution and punishment by the state courts. If the Indians, for injuries done to one another, chose to resort to the state laws, they were open to them; if they chose to proceed according to their own usages, they were permitted so to do. If a white man injured an Indian, he was entitled to the same redress as a native citizen. Indeed, most of the state laws in relation to the Indians, were made to protect them from imposition. They found no fault with this state of things, and raised no question as to the right of the state to extend jurisdiction over them. Being left to themselves, their numbers gradually diminished to a few wandering individuals, and they ceased to be of any political consideration. In relation to the Indian communities of the south-west, some of the states have been disposed to extend jurisdiction over them, while they were of some importance and before they were willing to yield the right of self government, which has produced perplexing questions between the general and state governments, not yet finally settled.

PUBLIC DOMAIN. The public domain, or land unappropriated belonging to the United States, consists of about two hundred millions of acres; being equal to a territory of six hundred miles square. It became the property of the United States, by cessions from individual states of portions of the vacant territory within their chartered limits, for the purpose of defraying the expenses of the war by which it was acquired; and by the purchase of Louisiana from France, in 1803, and of the Floridas from Spain, in 1819. It has been estimated that the amount expended by the United States government in the purchase of Louisiana and Florida, in the extinguishment of Indian titles, and in locating, surveying and superintending the lands, does not vary materially from the whole net amount received from the sales.

Within a few years past, the attention of speculators has been turned with great interest to these lands, and this circumstance has greatly augmented the amount recently sold. The Secretary of the Treasury in his report, December 5th, 1837, says—"the number of acres sold since the 1st of January, 1835, has reached the extraordinary quantity of thirty-seven and a half millions; and thus have the sales so widely departed from all precedents, and every ordinary principle of calculation, as to equal in less than three years, however incredible the fact may

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appear, the whole made during the forty-five years which had before elapsed from the adoption of the constitution."

During the year 1837, great pecuniary embarrassments began to be experienced throughout the country, and the sales of public lands since that time, have very materially decreased; the Secretary of the Treasury in estimating the receipts for 1838, calculates the amount to be received from lands at $5,000,000.

Although the actual value of these lands to the settler may be estimated at as many dollars, as acres which he purchases; their productiveness to the treasury can only be computed upon the amount received from the sales, annually varying from one to three millions of dollars, and equal only to a productive capital of fifty millions. In forming an estimate of the future value of this domain to the United States in a pecuniary view, the future expense of a military establishment necessary for its defence, must be taken into the account; were it not for this, a considerable part of the present army might with propriety be disbanded; the expenses of surveys and sales are also to be considered. It has been a subject of debate whether the public lands should be given up to the states, within whose limits they are located, or sold at prices merely nominal; and it is an important question whether it would be proper for the government to adopt either course.

MANNER OF LOCATION AND SALE. The course early adopted and uniformly pursued, has been to divide the territory into convenient districts; and to establish territorial governments, composed of a local legislature, and of an executive appointed by the General Government; and as soon as any district of a convenient size and location for a state, became sufficiently populous, to admit it as an equal member of the Union.

Ohio was the earliest and most important of the new states admitted from the public domain. The principles then adopted, formed the basis of all future proceeding on this subject. They were, that the public lands should remain the property of the United States until sold by them, and remain free from taxation until after the expiration of five years after they became private property. That the land should be surveyed, and divided into townships of six miles square, and each township into thirty-six sections of one square mile each, or 640 acres; and each section into quarters, eights, and sixteenths, the lowest subdivision containing only 40 acres, thereby giving to settlers of limited means, the opportunity of becoming freeholders. Land offices were established in convenient districts, where the lands were offered for sale in these divisions, first at public auction, and then at a minimum price. One thirty-sixth part of each township conveniently situated was set apart for the use of schools for the common benefit of the inhabitants; and one fifth part of the net avails of all the sales is appropriated to the

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making of roads leading to and through the state. As matter of further encouragement, there have been given to the new states at different times, and in different portions, upwards of three millions of acres for internal improvements, colleges, and seats of government.

AMOUNT SURVEYED AND SOLD. About eighty-five millions of acres of this domain have been sold; a further quantity has been surveyed and brought into market; and the Indian title has been extinguished to other large quantities, which have not yet been surveyed. That there might be no want of encouragement for pioneers to go as far west as they chose, a principle has been adopted in relation to the unseated lands, that whenever they are brought into market, a previous settler shall have the right of preemption at the minimum price. The objects of the government in adopting this liberal system, were to encourage the emigration of the redundant population of the old states, by placing within the power of every industrious and frugal man a freehold sufficient for the support of a family; and to prevent the accumulation of large tracts in the hands of individuals who had no other intention than to hold it for the purpose of speculation. A considerable portion of the unsold domain is within the limits of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Michigan, Missouri, Arkansas, and the territories of Florida, Wisconsin, and Iowa: but much the greater part of it is west of the Rocky mountains; and beyond the limits of any white settlements, or located territory.

PUBLIC DEBT. The public debt at the commencement of the government in 1789, amounted to seventy-five millions of dollars. It consisted of debts due for supplies furnished, services rendered, and moneys borrowed of foreign governments, and of individuals, for the purposes of the war of the revolution, and of state debts assumed. By the funding system, as it was called, in 1791, the domestic debt was converted into three species of public stock, one bearing an immediate interest of six per cent.; one bearing the same rate of interest, commencing in the year 1800, and the third, bearing a present interest of three per cent. In 1804 it amounted to $85,353,532, being its highest amount previous to the war of 1812, having received an addition of fifteen millions by the purchase of Louisiana. At the commencement of the last war, it had been reduced to forty-five millions; that war augmented it to one hundred and twenty-three millions. On January 1st, 1835, the whole public debt had been paid off, except a small amount, which by its terms could not be paid before that time, and for which, funds were seasonably provided. The whole amount of expenditures and receipts from the commencement of the government to 1840, exceeds one thousand millions. The money has been raised principally by

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duties, varying from fifteen to one hundred per cent. on the consumption of foreign articles.

The balance in the Treasury on the 1st of January, 1841, was, - - - - -	$987,345 03
The total estimated receipts were, -	30,410,167 77
Total,	31,397,512 80
The total expenditures were estimated at	32,025,070 70
Leaving a deficit on January 1st, 1842,	627,557 90

During the year 1841, there were about seven and three quarters millions of dollars issued in treasury notes, and about five millions redeemed.

CURRENCY. For the purpose of commercial intercourse, or the interchange of property between individuals, a common measure or standard is requisite, with which the value of all property the subject of exchange can be compared. As the comfort and convenience of mankind require an interchange of commodities, not only between individuals of the same nation, but also between those of different nations, it is requisite that this standard should be of universal application; and among all nations arrived at any considerable degree of civilization, gold and silver, by common consent, have been adopted as constituting this standard. The value of all contracts, and of all property, is estimated according to the quantity of these metals which they will command. They are denominated precious metals, as though their intrinsic worth was equal to their current value; but such is not the case; for any other purpose than that of a common measure they are not as useful as several other kinds. Their principal value consists in this, that they enable the holder to procure a given quantity of any article which he may wish to possess. But though gold and silver are the universal standard by which the value of all property is estimated, they by no means constitute the whole or the greater part of the medium of commercial intercourse. Credits or obligations, written or verbal, by which one individual assumes to pay another a given sum in gold and silver, constitute in fact, the greater part of this medium. These metals do not amount in the United States, to a hundredth, and perhaps not to a thousandth part of the value of the contracts that are made and discharged in the course of a year, and the greater part of what there is, lies dormant in the vaults of the banks. It appears in the character of an actual currency, only in small sums as change. Notwithstanding the small amount of precious metals, as they are called, which is to be found in the country, the value of all paper depends upon the facility with which it can be converted into them, and its credit upon the belief that it can be thus done at pleasure. When such

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belief is perfect, it is of equal market value, and sometimes, on account of the ease and safety of its preservation and remittance, it rises above.

BANK OF VENICE. This principle of commercial intercourse, founded upon credit, early gave rise to the institution of banks; the first bearing this name, of which history gives any authentic account, is the bank of Venice, established by the government in that city, in 1171. It had but few of the features of the present banking system. It was at first only a place of deposit, where the merchants of Venice placed their specie, and had credit on the books of the bank, and a certificate of the deposits, the government making use of the deposits, and guaranteeing their return, and the depositors making use of their money by transferring their credits. There was nothing in the nature of an incorporated company; no circulation of paper, other than the certificates of the depositors; and no discounts or loans to individuals. It was in the strict and proper sense, a government bank; the depositors at its first institution, were not even allowed to withdraw their money, but afterwards were permitted to. From the great wealth and commercial prosperity of the city, the bank sustained a hight credit. It was the only institution of that kind in Europe for upwards of four centuries. In 1609, the bank of Amsterdam, and in 1619, the bank of Hamburgh, were established upon similar principles; neither of them were banks of discount.

BANK OF ENGLAND. In 1693, the Bank of England was established, from which the banking principle, as adopted in the United States, had its origin. It was not only a bank of deposit, but also of circulation and discount. The stockholders were incorporated into a joint stock company by King William III. They were required to loan, for the government, the whole amount of their first capital, $5,328,000; but were soon afterwards allowed to increase their capital, to employ it in private loans and discounts, and in the purchase of bills, and to circulate their notes as a currency. Its capital has several times been increased, and in 1781, amounted to fifty-two millions of dollars. Its dividends have varied from five to ten per cent. per annum. Of late years, its loans to the government have amounted to fifty per cent. more than its whole capital. It was at first allowed to circulate bills as low as $4.44, or what was called one pound notes. In 1829, its circulation was restricted to notes of $22 and upwards. In 1797, the Bank of England, by an order of the privy council, suspended specie payments. This order was confirmed by parliament, and continued to the 1st of May, 1823. The affairs of the bank are managed by a governor, lieutenant governor, and twenty-four directors, chosen

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by the stockholders. Its corporate name is, the Governor and Company of the Bank of England.

BANK OF NORTH AMERICA. In 1781, Robert Morris, then at the head of the finances of the United States, recommended the establishment of a bank upon similar principles with the bank of England; and Congress on this recommendation, passed a resolution for establishing the bank of North America with a capital of $400,000. It possessed all the features of the present banking system; was enabled to loan considerable sums to the United States, and was of essential service in managing their finances at the most critical periods. The Congress of that day possessed no power of creating banking corporations, and granted no charter defining the powers of this bank, but recommended to the states to pass acts giving validity to the institution. The association continued to do business on an extensive scale, without any legal authority, for a considerable time, until they obtained a charter from the Legislature of Pennsylvania. This charter was revoked in 1785, under an apprehension that it was a monopoly hazardous to the liberties of the country. The charter was renewed in 1787. This bank, within the sphere of its operations, was of great utility, and enabled Pennsylvania to get through the unquiet period immediately preceding the establishment of the Federal Government, without the experiment of tender laws, and the paper money system. Its sphere of operation was necessarily limited. The country could hardly be said to have a currency at that time. The little of gold and silver which was to be found at the peace, was immediately exported to Europe for goods. Some of the states issued, what was called paper money, or bills of credit, by which the state obligated itself to pay to the holder, the sum specified in the bill, but without providing any funds to fulfil the obligation. These notes were issued in payment of any debts which the state owed, and were also loaned to individuals upon security deemed satisfactory. They were usually accompanied with tender laws, making them receivable in discharge of all contracts, thereby reducing the value of debts at least twenty-five per cent. So universally odious had this system become, that that clause in the constitution, prohibiting the States from the exercise of this power, was adopted with little difficulty.

BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES. Mr. Hamilton's able report on the subject of sustaining public credit; recommending a bank of the United States, led to the establishment of such an institution as he recommended. It also led to the general introduction of bank paper, and bank credits, as the currency of the country. The state banks furnish the circulating medium of the country, with the exception of a small quantity of silver, used for the purpose of change. They have an aggregate cap-

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ital of about two hundred millions; bills in circulation, sixty-four millions; and specie, twenty-seven millions. From facts ascertained and laid before the legislature of the state of New York, February, 1835, it was estimated that one fifth of this circulation was in bills of less denomination than five dollars. Gold and silver remains, and, by the constitution, always must remain, the standard value of property.

In 1837, in consequence of the overtrading and speculation, (which was mainly caused by the vast increase of banking capital throughout the country) a great revulsion was produced, and the panic which resulted from it, brought the bills of the banks in such quantities to their counters for redemption, that they felt compelled to suspend specie payments.

In 1839, the United States bank of Pennsylvania, after having with the other banks generally, recovered from the crash of 1837, so far as to resume specie payments, again suspended, and was followed by most of the banks south and west. A letter from the secretary of the Treasury, dated Jan. 8th, 1840, states, that at that time, three hundred and forty-three banks had entirely suspended specie payments, and sixty-two banks had suspended in part. Many of these have since resumed, and many have gone into liquidation.

The main business of banks, that of exchanging their own notes without interest, for good paper, at a discount to the amount of the interest, is a profitable and safe business. There will always be, in a well managed bank, to meet the demands against it, an equal amount of this paper, together with its whole capital. Every bill purports to be the representative of its amount in specie, deposited in the vaults of the bank whence it is issued, yet every holder knows that this is not strictly true. Instead of it, there is substituted a belief, that by the skillful management of the directors, the bills will be paid in specie on demand at the proper office; and it is this belief only, which gives the bill a circulation, and prevents the actual demand.

In the commercial community, business is transacted by two descriptions of persons. One, those trading on their own capital, and the other, where the capitalist, desirous of retiring from business, and placing his money where it may be productive, loans it to the enterprising man of business without capital, either in private loans, or with associates, establishing a bank to which borrowers may resort. Business conducted in the latter mode, is what may be called trading upon borrowed capital, and is often mutually beneficial. It constitutes a very considerable portion of the commercial dealings in the United States.

COMMERCE. The establishment of independence opened the commerce of the world to the United States. Great benefits were expected as the immediate results. But during the unsettled condition of the country between the peace of 1783, and the

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commencement of the government in 1789, little good was derived from it. Great Britain avowedly adopted the principle, according to Lord Sheffield's advice, of making no commercial treaty with the United States, for the reason that they had no government with a controlling power over commerce. She could mould her intercourse with them to suit her own interests.

This unprofitable state of our commercial affairs, was one of the great causes which led to the adoption of the present constitution. Since that time, our commerce instead of being subject to the varying legislation of thirteen distinct state sovereignties, has been controlled by the national power, and the beneficial effect of the change has become apparent.

In 1841 our imports amounted to about one hundred and twenty-eight millions, and our exports to one hundred and twenty-two millions.

POST OFFICE. One of the earliest and most important establishments of the federal government is the general post office. Its rapid increase and extension is a further indication of the increased wealth and business of the country. The law carrying into effect that clause of the constitution authorizing Congress "to establish post offices and post roads," was passed in 1789; and seventy-five post offices, and an extent of 1875 miles of post road established. The whole amount of postage received the first year, was thirty-eight thousand dollars.

From this small beginning, the establishment in 1841 exhibited the following results.

Number of post offices, - - - - -	13,468
Extent of post roads, - - - - -	155,740 miles.
The revenue of the department for the year ending June 10th, 1841, was - -	$4,379,317 78
The expenditures for the same period, were,	4,567,238 39
Excess of expenditures, - - -	$187,920 61

The mails were transported during the same year, 34,966,525 miles.

It has been the object of Congress neither to obtain a revenue from this department, nor to make it a burden to the treasury; but to extend its accommodations according as its increasing means would warrant.

In his annual report of December, 1840, the Postmaster General recommends the following changes.

1. The entire abolition of the franking privilege, as an exclusive personal right, with the exception of the Executive and the heads of departments.

2. A limitation by law of the maximum rate of compensation for all steamboat, railroad and coach service.

3. The equalization of postage on newspapers and other printed matter, with an advance of one hundred per cent.

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4. A revision of the tariff of letter postage, with a reduction of twenty-five per cent.

It would be very desirable to reduce the postage rates if the revenues will not thereby be impaired, and the franking privilege is so abused, that it should either be abolished or curtailed.

MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT. Several important considerations have induced the people of the United States to reduce their military peace establishment to the lowest point compatible with the public safety. In Europe, standing armies are the principal causes of unextinguishable public debts, heavy taxes, and frequent wars. The listless vacuity of a garrison life is scarcely endurable to the soldier. Both the officer and soldier sigh for active scenes in which they may distinguish themselves. The ambition of princes, stimulated by such feelings on the part of their armies has kept the nations of Europe more or less at war for ages. Their standing armies are the basis on which the fiction of an hereditary right to govern rests, and the instrument by which monarchs support their power and oppress their subjects.

The reduction of an army from a war to a peace establishment, is a matter of extreme difficulty; both the officer and the soldier return with reluctance to the common pursuits of civil life, to which their military employment has given them a disrelish, and in a degree disqualified them. The disbanding of the army at the close of the war of the revolution, was a delicate and hazardous task, which devolved upon the Congress of that period. The army were unpaid, discontented, and mutinous. Addresses were circulated among them, the objects of which were, to induce them to hold their arms in their hands until demands were satisfied. They had at their head a popular and victorious leader, on whom at this time depended as much as at any period of the war, the liberties of the country. The road to a military government, of which he could have been the head, seemed entirely open; and it is not improbable that to his wisdom America is indebted that she is not now numbered among monarchical governments.

Between the settlement of the preliminaries of peace, and its final ratification, a considerable period intervened in which there was no active employment for the army; it could not, however, with propriety, be formally disbanded. During this interval, Congress adopted the expedient of granting furloughs, for an unlimited time, on which was endorsed a final discharge in case the peace took effect. These were eagerly sought by a large portion of the soldiers; so that when the time came for its final dissolution, nothing but the skeleton of an army remained; and those who had harbored mutinous projects, found no means of executing them. Having rid themselves of this army without doing it justice, or giving it any other compensation for its mer-

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itorious services, than mere scrips of paper evidencing the amount of their demands, and without providing any means of payment, Congress had an instinctive dread against calling together another military force for any purpose; and it was with great difficulty that any temporary one could be raised to repress Indian incursions.

The government under the constitution found the whole Indian population in a state of active hostility. But so tardy and inefficient was the force raised to repel it, that the first three years of the Indian war presented scarcely any thing but a series of defeats. Something of a more permanent and adequate force, was at length organized under General Wayne, which in 1794, put an end to the Indian war.

ARMY OF 1798 AND 1812. The raising of an army in 1798 prostrated the administration which undertook it. The recruiting officers, stationed in the principal towns and villages, added a hundred voters to the ranks of the opposition, to one soldier for the army. Stationing the troops in the interior, remote from the seaboard, added to the consideration, that the Atlantic ocean and the British fleet were perfect safeguards against a French invasion, created a suspicion that this army was raised for the actual purpose of influencing the elections; a suspicion which was cherished and turned to good account by the opposition.

The administration of 1801 coming into office under these circumstances, were not the advocates of a standing military force, and it was kept at the lowest point until the war of 1812. In organizing an army for that war, government endeavored to avail itself of the experience acquired in the war of the revolution, in the selection of its general officers; and of the ardor and enterprise of younger men, in its selection of officers of inferior grade. These qualities, though they might be found in the army, not being united in the same person, were of little avail. The old officers were over cautious, while, at first, the zeal of the younger class not being directed with sufficient skill, was unsuccessful. Towards the close of the war, the contest assumed a different aspect, and terminated successfully with the brilliant affair at New Orleans. The Congress in session at the peace of 1814, immediately reduced the military establishment to ten thousand, and their immediate successors to six thousand effectives, at which point it remained for some time. Of late years the army has been increased, and now numbers in all about twelve thousand.

OBJECTS OF A MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT. There can be but three legitimate objects for a permanent military force in the United States in time of peace; one to garrison the fortifications on the seaboard, a second to establish a chain of military posts on the frontier, sufficient to prevent Indian incursions, and a third to form a nucleus for an army in case of war. The first

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certainly require no more men than are sufficient to take charge of the munitions of war with which the fortresses are furnished. The second is important, and to be provided for in all events. The policy adopted towards the Indians, both in war and peace, has a tendency, to diminish the requisite amount of this force. Exemplary punishment upon any tribe committing aggressions, and compelling them to deliver up and place at the disposal of the government, the actual aggressors; at the same time giving to the Indians a fair price for their lands, and preventing intrusions upon their reservations, all have the effect of preventing further Indian hostilities, and relieving the country from the necessity of maintaining a military force on the frontier to any great extent. The recent exhibition of the power of the United States, to Black Hawk and his associates, had a tendency to the same result.

The Florida war may be considered an exception to the above remarks; it has occasioned much expense to the Government, and loss of life to our troops. It has been the most harrassing of all our Indian warfares, and the physical condition of the country has presented a powerful barrier to its speedy settlement.

It would seem almost unnecessary for this country, in forming an estimate of the military force proper for a peace establishment, to take into consideration the danger of a foreign war. No power on the continent of America, colonial or independent, is of sufficient magnitude to excite the least apprehension. An invasion from Europe is as little to be feared. The nations of that continent have full employment at home. Should any one be rash enough to attempt it, they would meet at the threshold strong fortresses at every exposed point, a navy adequate to protect the coast, and a million and a half of militia with arms in their hands ready to repel them. Presenting such a front, and acting upon the principle of doing equal and exact justice to all, and submitting to injury from none, the United States have nothing to fear.

During the pendency of the late controversy with Great Britain respecting the north-eastern boundary, two hundred men were stationed near Mars Hill, on the border of the disputed territory, to overlook the authorities of New Brunswick, and prevent further abuse to American citizens. The present amount of permanent force is sufficient for all the ordinary purposes of defence, and yet too small to be burdensome to the treasury, much less to endanger the liberties of the country.

MILITARY ACADEMY. As an important auxiliary to the national defence, the military academy at West Point was established in the year 1808. It is located on the west bank of the Hudson, in the county of Orange, and state of New York, fifty miles above the city of New York, and one hundred below the city of Albany, where the river passes through the highlands.

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It was one of the most important and strongly fortified posts during the war of the revolution. In the hands of the Americans, it kept open a communication between New England and New York, and the states to the south. In the hands of the British, it would enable them to cut off this communication in a great measure. It derives much celebrity, from being the place where Arnold's treason was detected, on the point of its consummation. The objects of this establishment, are to instruct a number of youths from different sections of the United States in the science of war: to furnish candidates for vacancies in the army; to diffuse throughout the country military skill, and in case of actual war, to furnish the means of organizing an army with intelligent officers. An important incidental advantage of the institution is, the bringing together and educating in one seminary, youth from all sections of the country, thereby enabling them to form acquaintances, and to cherish mutual affections, calculated to strengthen the Union.

The military academy, as organized by the law of 1802, and re organized in 1812, consists of a corps of cadets, not to exceed two hundred and fifty, and of various professors with their assistants; there is also a chaplin; equestrian exercises have also been introduced. The cadets are arranged into companies of non-commissioned officers and privates, for the purpose of military instruction. Four musicians are attached to each company, and the whole corps is instructed in all the duties of a private and of an officer; and of a regular encampment, for which latter purpose they are required to be in the field three months in a year. Candidates must be over fourteen and under twenty, and previously versed in reading, writing and arithmetic. They are required to sign articles, with the consent of their parents or guardians, engaging to serve five years unless sooner discharged. They have sixteen dollars a month, and two rations a day. When a cadet has received a regular degree from the academic staff, he is considered a candidate for a commission in any corps according to the duties he may be judged competent to perform; and if there be no vacancy, the president may attach him to such corps by brevet of the lowest grade, until a vacancy occur.

When the academy is full, (as it usually is) it annually sends forth fifty young men, with a competent portion of military skill, into different parts of the community. By these means, a knowledge of the theory of war is preserved in time of peace, and diffused among the militia, at the same time a body is formed, from which an army may be readily organized in case of war. It is a happy substitute for the practice among European nations of permitting their officers to engage in foreign service. The chief engineer is ex officio inspector of the academy. It is also visited annually by about twenty gentlemen, charged with the duty of holding a strict examination of the cadets, on the

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subject of their studies; also of examining into the general condition of the institution, of reporting any defects or delinquencies in any of its departments, and suggesting improvements. They usually spend about three weeks in the discharge of their duties, and are required to make report to the secretary of war. The selection of cadets is made by that officer, under the direction of the president. One is usually taken from each congressional district, and the remainder promiscuously, without reference to the place of residence.

The further continuance of this institution is opposed on the ground that the prospect of any future war is so remote, as to render this a useless and unnecessary expenditure, and also that it is a powerful instrument of executive influence; the berth of a cadet being eagerly sought after, and usually bestowed where it will have the greatest political effect.

MILITIA. The great instrument of national defence in the United States, is their militia, consisting of every able bodied white male citizen, between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, with certain exceptions, and amounting, in 1842, to 1,668,387. No subject presented more real difficulties in its adjustment, to the framers of the constitution, than that of the militia; none more perplexing in its operation. The duties of protecting the United States from foreign invasion and domestic insurrection, and executing the laws of the union, devolved on the general government; this required the command of the physical force of the nation. The states were unwilling to give it up, and a middle course was taken. The 8th section of the first article confers on Congress certain specific powers relating to the militia; it ordains that "Congress shall provide for calling them forth, to execute the laws of the union, to suppress insurrections, and repel invasions, for organizing, arming, and disciplining them, and for governing them when in the actual service of the United States, reserving to the states respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress." The second congress under the constitution, in 1792, passed an act professedly in execution of this part of the constitution; the act, with its supplements, required that every able bodied white male citizen within the specified ages, resident in the several states, with certain exceptions, should be enrolled in the militia, equip himself, and do a certain portion of military duty yearly; and that the militia of each state should be arranged into companies, regiments, brigades, and divisions, and officered by the several states. This act, depending upon the state legislatures for its execution, was complied with in whole, in part, or not at all, according to the sovereign pleasure of the states. The United States not having the appointment of the officers, had no control over them, and could not punish them

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for neglect or disobedience of orders. When they had occasion for the services of the militia, application was necessarily made to officers not of their own appointment, and in nowise responsible to their authority: they would therefore comply, or not, according to their pleasure; and nothing short of a resort to the sword, or civil war, could compel a compliance. The incidents which have attended the occasional calls of the militia by the general government, show the utter inefficiency of any system where one body enacts laws relying upon another independent body for their execution.

As early as the year 1808, Congress passed an act for gradually arming the whole militia of the United States, and made an annual appropriation for that purpose. This has been expended partly in establishing manufactories of arms, and partly in purchasing musketry, which have been distributed to the states in proportion to the returns of the militia.

NAVY. The subject of a naval force early attracted the attention of the government. At its commencement it had nothing which could be called a marine. The war of the revolution had been commenced, carried on, and successfully terminated, without a navy to any extent. The few vessels which Congress had employed during the war, were disposed of, or suffered to go to decay after the peace. The condition of the country from 1783 to 1789, prevented any efforts towards the creation of a marine; although the constantly extending commerce of the country required one. During the first term of General Washington's administration so many other important subjects pressed themselves upon the consideration of Congress, that little was done regarding a navy. The first act for procuring ships of war, was passed in 1794. Its immediate object was to protect the Mediterranean trade against the Algerine piracies. It authorized the president to provide by purchase or otherwise, and to equip and employ, four ships of 44 guns, and two of 36. It also provided that in case peace should take place with Algiers, no further proceedings should be had under the act. Such peace did take place in 1795, before the ships were procured. The act, notwithstanding this restriction, which its advocates hoped to get rid of, was intended to lay the foundation for a permanent navy; and on this question the parties, federal and anti-federal, divided; the former maintaining that the best interests of the United States required, that at the earliest possible period they should provide a navy adequate to guard the coast, and protect commerce; the latter claiming that the period had not yet arrived, when it was proper to provide a navy; that a small one, such as was within the power of the United States to provide, could be of no essential service, and in case of war would only fall a victim to its more powerful adversary; that it would be more likely to occasion than to prevent wars; and that

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incumbered as the United States then were, with the whole debt of the revolution, it was folly to incur the great additional expense of a navy. As the immediate professed object, it was cheaper, they contended, to buy a peace with Algiers, or purchase the protection of some naval power, than to incur this expense. As was usual at this period, the principles of the federalists prevailed. The act passed by a considerable majority. By an act of April, 1796, the president was authorized to continue the building and equipment of two forty-fours, and one thirty-six; and the frigates United States, Constitution, and Constellation, were built under this act, and equipped, and manned under another of July, 1797. The warlike attitudes assumed against France in 1798, led to an increase of the naval force. Twelve vessels of twenty-two guns each, were directed to be purchased and put into immediate service. Two successful encounters with the ships of that nation rendered the navy popular; its affairs were then placed under the direction of a new department, with a principal officer denominated the Secretary of the navy. By an act of February, 1815, a board of navy commissioners were appointed to aid the secretary in the discharge of his duties, and under his directions to do most of the business appertaining to the office. The board consists of three commissioners, whose salaries, with their secretary, clerks, draughtsman and messenger, amount to $23,450.

The political revolution of 1801, placed the government in the hands of those who were opposed to a permanent navy. Their principles of harbor defence, as explained by Mr. Jefferson, were gun boats, and moveable land batteries, which might readily be brought to bear upon any point of an assailing foe. The Barbary piracies having ripened into a war with Tripoli, soon after the commencement of Mr. Jefferson's administration rendered a respectable naval force necessary in the Mediterranean.

ITS CONDITION IN 1812. At the commencement of the war in 1812, the American navy consisted of ten frigates from thirty-two, to forty-four guns, ten small vessels of war, and one hundred and sixty-five gun boats; while that of their enemy amounted to a thousand ships of war, upwards of one hundred of which were ships of the line of the first class. The events of that war united all parties in favor of a navy. They may be stated in few words. The American ships never shunned an enemy of equal force, and never met one but with success. The meeting of the Chesapeake with the Shannon is not an exception. The whole number of British vessels captured and sent into port, or destroyed during that war, exclusive of re-captures, was sixteen hundred and thirty-four, carrying three thousand one hundred and thirteen guns, and twelve thousand two hundred and fifteen men. One hundred and seventy of these captures were by public ships of war, and the residue by privateers. As the cap-

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tured ships were at sea, fully armed, or freighted with valuable cargoes, their average value is estimated at $40,000, making a total loss to the British government and merchants, of $65,000,000. About the same number of American ships were captured and destroyed by the British; but, as many of them were in harbor, and without cargoes, the balance in value, was greatly in favor of America.

At the commencement of the contest, British officers affected to despise the American stripes, and boasted that they would drive them from the ocean in a few months. The result was mortifying to them, and highly honorable to the enterprise, skill and valor of the Americans. The spirit with which the American commanders met their enemies, is happily expressed by Decatur in an interview with Carden, the commander of the Macedonian, just before the war. They accidentally met at Norfolk. "Commodore," said Carden, "we now meet as friends; God grant we may never meet otherwise, but we are subject to the orders of our governments, and must obey them." "I heartily reciprocate the sentiment," said Decatur. "But" said Carden, "suppose we meet as enemies, what do you suppose would be the consequence to yourself, and the force you command?" "Why sir," replied Decatur, "if we meet with forces which may be fairly called equal, the conflict will be severe; but the flag of my country, on the ship I command, shall never leave the staff on which it waves, as long as there is a hull to support it." Their next meeting was on the quarter deck of the United States, where Carden presented his sword to Decatur, who replied, "give me your hand sir, I can never receive the sword of a man who has so bravely defended his ship."

The Secretary of the Navy, has, at several times, pressed upon the consideration of Congress the establishment of one or more admirals. His reasons were, that it would add respectability to the navy, render the naval service more desirable, its officers more ambitious, and its operations more effective, being under the direction of a single individual of high rank, and distinguished merit; and that it would render the land and sea service uniform, the office of admiral corresponding with that of general. This proposition has been at all times disapproved by Congress, on the ground that no such office was necessary, the genuine and legitimate object of such an appointment being only the command of fleets in time of war; that the United States possess no such fleets for an admiral to command, and that none such were necessary; that the danger of war was remote, and that it would be in time to appoint such an officer, when there was a fleet for him to command, and the public exigency required it. In the present condition of the country, it was considered a useless expense, and an unnecessary increase of executive patronage.

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ITS PRESENT CONDITION. With the exception of a war of a few weeks with Algiers, the navy has been employed since the peace, in suppressing piracies in the West Indies, and the African slave trade, and protecting commerce by the exhibition of a small naval force, in the Pacific, on the coast of Brazil, and in the Mediterranean. A few vessels have also been employed to cruise upon the coast of Florida, for the preservation of the lives and property of the citizens. The United States have in ordinary, that is, laid up in port, without employment, and without men, other than what are necessary for their preservation, two ships of the line, and four frigates; on the stocks, four ships of the line, and five frigates. These are in various stages, most of them in a condition to be put to sea in sixty or ninety days. They are under cover, in what are called ship houses, secure from all damages from the weather. They are designed to be completed, as far as this condition will admit, and to remain in this situation until a war shall render their services necessary. This plan is peculiar to the United States, and is one of singular economy and utility. It presents to a nation disposed to hostilities, as formidable an array as a fleet on the ocean, and as such, is an important instrument in preserving peace. It avoids the decays to which ships in ordinary are exposed, and the constant and increasing repairs which they require. And generally, they can be prepared for active service in less time, and with less expense, than a ship in ordinary. Taking into view the little danger of any future maritime war, ships in ordinary will probably decay and be wholly lost to the country before their services will be wanted, while those in ship houses will be preserved to a remote period. The plan originated with Mr. Jefferson. He, indeed, carried the idea to the extent of preparing dry docks into which ships which had been in service, might be brought and housed. This part of the plan did not meet the approbation of Congress.

In case of an immediate war, the United States are able to present to the view of an enemy, eleven ships of the line, seventeen frigates, eighteen sloops of war, four brigs and ten schooners; in all, a fleet of sixty sail; though not enough to meet a great naval power on the ocean, yet abundantly sufficient to defend the coast from any force which can be brought against it. In addition to this navy, the government can, at any time, possess itself of any number of steamboats, which may be converted into steam batteries, a powerful engine of defence. The steam ship Fulton has been employed on the Atlantic coast. The steamers Mississippi and Missouri, each mounting ten Paixhan guns, form part of the home squadron. The United States have seven navy yards, at which are naval stores and materials for ship building, to the value of six millions of dollars.

At the navy yards near Portsmouth and Boston, dry docks

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have been prepared, for the purpose of repairing the hulls of ships of war, on the following plan; a suitable place for a basin of sufficient size and depth is selected and secured by a dam, with gates sufficient to admit the ships. The vessel being introduced, the gates are shut, and the water thrown out by steam pumps, so as to leave the hulls dry, and in a condition to be repaired. The dock at Boston has cost upwards of six hundred and fifty thousand dollars, and that at Portsmouth, eight hundred and seventy-eight thousand. Since the commencement of these docks, owners of private navy yards have been able to make railways upon an inclined plane, and to apply a force sufficient, by means of steam or horse power, to draw up their largest ships, and repair them, without the expense of dry docks. The same principle, applied to the United States navy yards, will save this great expense.

The whole expenditure of the navy for 1841, is estimated at five millions and twenty-five thousand dollars, exclusive of the amount required for the marine corps, including a sum annually appropriated for its gradual improvement.

No subject affords matter of more congratulation to the American people, than their means of defence, military and naval, compared with their exposedness to war. A million and a half of armed freemen, ready to repel aggression, a well fortified seaboard, and a navy competent to its protection, they may be at rest as to all danger of foreign war, and give their whole attention to the preservation of internal peace, and their institutions.

MINT. In virtue of the power given by the constitution, "to coin money and regulate its value," Congress, at an early period, passed a law establishing a mint. In the year 1841, the deposites of gold in the United States mint and branches, amounted to $1,068,502. The coinage of all the metals for 1841, $2,240,321. The gold received at the mint from the gold region of the United States, for this year, was $542,117. The principal portion of the United States' gold is obtained from North Carolina and Georgia. The states of Virginia, South Carolina, Tennessee and Alabama, have yielded small quantities. This region, commencing in Virginia, and terminating in Alabama, is estimated to contain one thousand square miles, and is thought to be rich, both in mines, and in sand from which gold is washed.

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CHAPTER XIV.

Education. In the United States. Common school system. Education of colored children. Academies and colleges. American principles of education compared with European. General taste for reading. Number of newspapers, and periodicals. Connection of religion with civil government. Union of church and state. Principles of primitive christianity; of the first settlers of New England. In the south. Principles of Virginia, adopted by other states. Creeds. Their effect in aiding or obstructing researches after truth. Numbers belonging to each denomination in the United States. Benevolent societies. American foreign missionary society. Its object. Its first efforts; its present condition. American education society. Its object and progress. Roman Catholic missionary society. Its object and present condition. American bible society. Its object and operations. Other benevolent institutions. Penitentiary system; when and by whom introduced. Former modes of inflicting punishments. Different penitentiary plans. Eastern penitentiary of Pennsylvania. Massachusetts and Connecticut plans. House of Refuge. American penitentiaries noticed in Europe. Visited by French commissioners for the purpose of obtaining models. Their report. American improvements extending to Europe.

EDUCATION. The subject of education is, by the constitution, left entirely in the hands of the state authorities. Nothing is said regarding it in that instrument. General Washington indeed, supposed, that under the clause "to provide for the general welfare," was included the power to establish a national university, and to endow it with adequate funds. In his view, such an institution at the seat of government, open to the youth of the whole nation, would tend to diffuse correct notions of civil liberty, bring its distant portions to an acquaintance with each other, with its laws, and the proceedings of its government, and be a powerful instrument in perpetuating the Union. In the course of his administration, he several times recommended the subject to Congress; but though seconded by many enlightened statesmen, it never met the approbation of that body, or of the people.

The principles of education in the United States, differ from those in the monarchies of Europe, almost as much as the forms of their government. In both, they are calculated to support their respective political systems. In Europe, the object is to

accommodate a few with the highest degree of education. A small number of universities are established by the government, with liberal endowments, and furnished with numerous professors, and every facility for a complete system of instruction. A seven years' residence is required, to complete an education at one of these universities. It is evident, that none but the sons of the rich can enjoy it. It is designed for no other, and for them, places are generally provided in the church or state. By this system, government seeks several objects; one, to maintain a high literary national character; and another, to establish a learned and powerful body, ever ready to support its claims; for however convinced the learned may be of the rottenness of the foundation on which hereditary monarchy rests, their interest generally governs, and leads them to support a government, which in its turn, supports them. This class is found the last among revolutionists. In regard to the lower orders of people, it is considered that the more education they acquire, the more they will be disposed to examine into the basis on which their governments rest, and the more they will be inclined to begin with reform, and end in revolution. Hence, common schools, and academies, designed to diffuse a moderate portion of education among the lower classes, are not patronized. These remarks, however, apply more generally to the condition of Europe in preceding centuries. A more liberal system has of late prevailed in several nations, the spirit of reform keeping pace with improvements in common education.

IN THE UNITED STATES. In the United States, a different principle prevails. It is believed that their institutions, bottomed upon sound principles, need only to be understood, to be sustained; and that the surest way of giving them perpetuity, is to diffuse knowledge as much as possible, among the people. Hence, common schools, where reading, writing, and the elements of numbers are taught gratuitously to the poor, are established; and where there are not public funds for the purpose, are supported by a general assessment. In some of the States, it was among their earliest provisions, that every district containing within convenient limits, a sufficient number of children, should maintain such a school a certain number of months in each year, and every child be obliged to attend. Where a state has become possessed of funds, not immediately necessary for other purposes, the support of common schools has afforded a useful and popular object for their appropriation. In every state, it is deemed an object of the first importance to give the whole white population the rudiments of education, so that but few are to be found, of ordinary capacities, who are unable to read and write, and to understand the first principles of arithmetic.

The proportion of pupils in common schools, to the whole

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population in New England and New York, is one to five; and in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, one to eight; in England, one to fifteen; in France, one to seventeen; and in Russia, one to three hundred and sixty-seven. Children between the ages of five and fifteen, the proper period for instruction, usually constitute one fourth of the whole population.

EDUCATION OF COLORED CHILDREN. In most of the States, common schools are open to colored children, upon equal terms with the white; but with the first principles of education, they learn that they are a degraded race, shunned by their school fellows, and often neglected by the master. They rarely obtain the rudiments of knowledge. In cities and populous villages, where a sufficient number can be collected to form a separate school, it is generally done, and their education is better provided for. A few surmount the difficulties resulting from color, and want of education; acquire property, and become respectable members of community.

ACADEMIES AND COLLEGES. Next to common schools, the establishment of colleges and academies, for the higher branches of education, attracted the early and continued attention of the British American colonies. Nothing in the early history of any country, has equalled this zeal.

The first landing of the pilgrims in New England, was in November, 1620. In 1638, they founded Harvard college. The settlement of Connecticut commenced in 1635, and in 1700, Yale college was founded. The first permanent settlement in Virginia took place in 1607, and in 1693, the college of William and Mary was founded at Williamsburgh. Georgia was first settled in 1732, and in 1785, a college was established at Athens. The first permanent settlement in Kentucky was in 1775, and a college established at Lexington in 1798. The settlement of the state of Ohio commenced in 1778, and a college founded in 1802.

In 1842, there were one hundred colleges in the United States, for the purpose of the higher branches of education, and fitting youth for the study of the learned professions. The whole number of students is about 10,000.

NUMBER OF COLLEGES AND STUDENTS. The term of four years is allotted as the period necessary for an education, giving annually to the United States, twenty-five hundred, publicly educated persons. The expenses, of every description, for the four years, with ordinary economy, average about one thousand dollars to each student. The number of colleges and of students increases, at least in proportion to the population. Each state is ambitious of having one or more colleges within its borders.

Another cause which has multiplied colleges, is, that each

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religious denomination is desirous of having as many as possible of these institutions under its control. Each sect believing itself to be exclusively right, considers it as all important, to instil into the minds of the youth, who are receiving a public education, its own tenets, and to guard them against the errors of others. Although sectarian principles are the last which should find their way into literary institutions, yet while each of them is especially patronized by some particular denomination, and while the officers and instructors are generally attached to that faith, an influence will naturally be exerted tending to lead the student into the same train; and there will be some danger that the honors and distinctions of the college will be conferred on those of the favored sect.

THEOLOGICAL SEMINARIES. In addition to the collegiate institutions, there are forty theological seminaries, belonging to thirty different denominations of christians. There are also twenty-eight medical schools, at which there are about 3000 students.

AMERICAN EDUCATION COMPARED WITH EUROPEAN. The education which is obtained by a four years' residence in one of the American colleges, many of which are but poorly endowed, it is evident, cannot bear a favorable comparison with one which may be acquired by a seven years' residence at a European university. But the disadvantage is, in some degree, compensated by greater diligence, and by a greater incentive to exertion. The American student knows that the learned professions, and the highest political stations, are open to his ambition. Favoritism has comparatively little to do in the bestowment of office, and less in the employment of professional men. The Americans are proud to compare the able and business like messages of their chief magistrates to the national legislature, with the meagre addresses of European monarchs to their parliaments. Neither do their state papers, their diplomatic intercourse, or the deliberations of their legislative body, suffer by the comparison. However reluctant the British may be to acknowledge the merit of American literature, the re-publication and extensive circulation of American works, bear unequivocal testimony to their worth. The ease with which a public education, such as is deemed requisite for all its important purposes, is acquired, has diffused a general taste for reading and gaining information, among the people, such as is not to be found in other countries.

CONNECTION OF RELIGION WITH CIVIL GOVERNMENT. In no one particular does the American system differ so much from all others as in relation to the connection of religion with its civil policy. However incompetent human tribunals may be to

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regulate the concerns between man and his Maker, it appears from the earliest records of history, that they have almost uniformly undertaken it. The Jewish religion was entirely a theocracy, professing to take all its institutions, civil as well as religious, directly from inspiration. On this principle, it admitted of no diversity of opinion, or variation in its rites. The Egyptian, Grecian and Roman mythology, were connected with, and under the direction of the civil government.

TOLERATION AND PERSECUTION. Christ and his apostles taught their followers to be peaceable subjects, to submit to the ruling powers, rendering to every one their dues, and refraining in their religious character, from all interference with the government under which they lived. This principle, so long as it was in operation, preserved the Christian religion in its purity. It was nearly universal, during the two first centuries. But no sooner had Christianity become the prevailing religion of any nation, than its votaries connected themselves with the government. Some of the early assumptions of those who claimed to be the successors of the apostles were, that they were entitled, after the example of the Jewish hierarchy, and improving upon it, to one tenth part of the fruits of the earth, and the production of human labor; that they were the sole judges of what mankind were to believe, and how they were to worship; that they had the custody of the keys of heaven, by which they admitted or rejected persons, according as they obeyed or disobeyed their orders; and that all civil government was dependent upon, and bound to support this system, and to enforce a uniformity of doctrine and worship, under penalties extending to death. Such a system, enforced by a crafty priesthood upon an ignorant people, held them in absolute subjection.

PRINCIPLES OF THE FIRST SETTLERS. The first settlers in the northern section of the United States, fled from a persecution growing out of some of these principles. They could not divest themselves of the idea, that there was but one right way, that they alone were in it, and that all others must conform. Hence, in the first century of the settlement of the country, a religious persecution in a mitigated form, prevailed in the north. Some of their tenets were, that none but church members of their communion, should vote or hold office; that heretics (that is, those who differed from them) should undergo corporeal punishment, or be banished. The settlements in the south commenced under different circumstances, and for different reasons; still the idea prevailed, that government should patronize and support a particular system, but that it should exercise a spirit of forbearance towards dissenters. Hence arose what was called toleration, or the principle that dissenters should not be subject to

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pains and penalties. This principle prevailed, in a greater or less degree, and in different forms, throughout the colonies.

PRINCIPLES ADOPTED IN THE LEGISLATURE OF VIRGINIA. In the year 1775, Thomas Jefferson, then a young member of the House of Burgesses of the colony of Virginia, advanced the doctrine, that religion being a matter entirely between God and the conscience of each individual, it had no legitimate connection with civil policy; that all attempts of government to restrain, control, or direct the religion of the people, were so many usurpations of power not delegated to them; that religion needed not the aid of government; and that no citizen ought to suffer in his person, goods or estate, on account of his belief, or be compelled to contribute towards the support of any mode of worship. By his agency a bill was introduced, and ultimately passed, embracing these principles. The Christian religion in the episcopal form, had, before the passage of this act, been the established religion of the colony. This placed all denominations upon an entire equality, and left each to stand on its own merits, without the patronage or support of government. These principles gradually made their way among the people of other states, and were incorporated into most of their constitutions; and declarations of this sort were usually introduced. "The exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination, shall forever be free to all persons in the state. It being the duty of all men to worship the Supreme Being, the great Creator and preserver of the universe, and their right to render that worship in the mode most consistent with the dictates of their consciences, no person shall by law, be compelled to join or support, nor be classed with, or associated to any congregation, or church, or religious association. No preference shall be given by law, to any Christian sect, or mode of worship. Every citizen may freely speak, write and publish his sentiments upon all subjects."

IN THE OTHER STATES. The foregoing principles may be considered as the basis of the creed of the citizens of the United States in relation to the connection between religion and civil government. It is, however, to be understood with some qualification. There are exceptions in the constitutions of some of the states, which will be noticed in their proper place. The experiment of a separation of the civil and religious concerns of the nation, has been in fair operation for half a century, and has fully answered the expectations of its friends. The perfect freedom accorded to each individual to profess, propagate and support his own system, has given birth to a great number of sects. Twenty-five different denominations of Christians, who have acquired sufficient celebrity to obtain a distinctive appellation, have grown up under this system of religious liberty, all

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having perfectly equal privileges, and alike enjoying the protection of government. Learned and respectable teachers in the most prevalent denominations, are supported by the voluntary contracts and contributions of their hearers. By free discussion error is exposed, and truth confirmed. Persecution in all its forms being done away, no sect can build itself up under its operation. Some, whose peculiar tenets are revolting to the general sense of the community, die away by neglect, and for the want of a persecuting spirit against them. Those founded on better and more rational principles, succeed in different degrees, according to circumstances.

CREEDS. Each sect requires of its followers their subscription, or assent in some form, to a creed expressive of its peculiar tenets; and any deviation from it, denominates the person an errorist, heretic or infidel, according as his principles are deemed by his brethren more or less wrong, and he is dealt with by admonition or expulsion, according to the degree of error into which he has fallen. This restraint, of which, however, none can complain, except those who have voluntarily submitted to it, is an obstacle to free inquiry. The researches of a person under its influence, is not so much after truth in the abstract, as for arguments to support his creed, or what he has previously determined to be true.

NUMBER OF DIFFERENT SECTS. Various attempts have been made to class and number the different denominations of Christians in the United States. The most recent and accurate one gives the three most numerous sects as follows, viz;

	Ministers.	*Communicants.*
Methodists, - - - - -	3,506	736,549
Baptists, - - - - - -	4,239	452,000
Presbyterians, including Congregationalists, - - -	3,375	434,084

The communicants are estimated to contain about an eighth part of all the souls properly belonging to each denomination. The Protestant Episcopal Church embraces twenty-seven dioceses, twenty-one bishops, and one thousand and eleven ministers. The Roman Catholics have one archbishop, sixteen bishops, sixteen dioceses, and five hundred and forty-five clergymen. They estimate their numbers to be eight hundred thousand souls, including all, of every age and description, who adhere to their order.

MISSIONARY SOCIETY. It is a highly commendable trait in the human character, that being possessed of a good which does not diminish by being imparted to others, it is desirous of extending this good as far as possible. This principle has given

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birth to numerous associations, having for their objects the bettering of the condition of the human family, and the extension of the Christian religion. One of the earliest and most important of these associations, is the "American Foreign Missionary Society." Its professed object is to obey the command, "go ye into all the world and preach the gospel to every creature." In strict compliance with this order, preachers were sent to the Indians and other heathen, solely to preach the gospel. In the early operations of the society, a difficulty occurred in the outset. The Indians and other uninstructed heathen to whom missionaries were sent, had no language in which the sublime truths of the Christian religion could be communicated. With the exception of a few crude notions respecting invisible beings, the ideas, and consequent language of the untutored savage, is confined to sensible objects. The difference between the mission of the primitive apostles, clothed with supernatural powers, and sent to the polished and intelligent inhabitants of Greece and Rome, and modern missionaries sent without any such powers, to savages of the most ignorant and debased character, was not duly appreciated. The first difficulty, that of obtaining interpreters, might be overcome; the absolute want of a language in which abstract truth might be conveyed to an Indian mind, was more formidable. It was soon found, that whatever faint impressions might be made upon the mind of a roving Indian, that would soon wear off; and that all efforts would be unavailing, unless by establishing permanent stations, where the subjects who were to be Christianized, should be first taught the rudiments of civilization. This course was taken, and attended with success. The society has been in operation thirty-two years, depending on voluntary contributions for its support. These are generally collected by auxiliary associations, established in every town and neighborhood, where sufficient numbers can be found disposed to favor the cause. Their missions extend to the Indians beyond the Rocky Mountains; to various islands in the Indian and Pacific oceans; to China, and numerous other countries.

ITS OPERATIONS. The affairs of the society are conducted by a board, denominated the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The first object is to select suitable missionary fields or districts; next to establish one or more permanent stations in each; then to instruct all who are willing to receive instruction, especially the youth, in the rudiments of knowledge, so far as to enable them to comprehend the first principles of the Christian religion; to reclaim the Indians from a roving state to a settled agricultural one; and to establish churches and congregations for religious instruction and worship. As a general principle, the missionaries are not expected

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to return, but to spend their days in the service assigned to them.

The American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, was appointed by the general association of ministers of the congregational order, assembled at Boston, in June, 1810, and organized at Farmington, in Connecticut, in the September following. It was incorporated by the legislature of Massachusetts in 1812. In the year 1842, they had eighty-six missionary stations, distributed into every quarter of the globe; and having in their employment one hundred and thirty-eight preachers; forty-six assistants, consisting of physicians, school teachers, printers, &c., and one hundred and ninety-eight females, constituting a whole of three hundred and eighty-two persons from the United States. They have fifty-nine churches, embracing 19,742 members. They printed in 1840 about fifty million pages of books and tracts. Their receipts for the year amounted to $235,189 30.

American Education Society. The American Education Society, is an institution auxiliary to the missionary. Its object is, to assist indigent and pious youth, of competent talents, to acquire an education sufficient to qualify them for missionary service. Young men, whose parents are able to give them a public education, are not found in sufficient numbers, willing to engage in so laborious an undertaking; and few parents are found willing to educate their children for the purpose of sending them to distant lands, perhaps never to see them again. Hence, this institution became necessary. It also depends upon voluntary contributions for its support and the extent of its operations. Each beneficiary is required to do all in his power to obtain his own education; and the funds of the society are only given in aid of his exertions. On the completion of his education, he is expected to devote himself to the missionary service, and in case he does not, he is required to refund to the society, the advancements which they have made for him, whenever he is able. These institutions are strictly presbyterian or congregational, and their object is, to extend the Christian religion according to the tenets of that denomination. The methodists and baptists have likewise missionary establishments of the same character, and often in foreign countries, in the same neighborhood. The missionaries of different denominations, meeting abroad for the same general purpose, seem to forget sectarian animosities, which too often prevail at home, and unite their efforts in the common cause.

Roman Catholic Religion. While the protestants of America are making these exertions abroad, their own country and condition at home, is considered by the Roman Pontiff, as furnishing an important field for the missionary labors of his

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subjects. Considerable funds are raised, and missionaries sent forth into various parts of the United States, to spread the Catholic religion.

BIBLE SOCIETY. Another institution, having in view the general diffusion of the Christian religion, is the American Bible Society. Its operations commenced in 1816. Its object was the general diffusion of the Bible, without note or comment, among the people of the United States. It has undertaken to furnish every family who are destitute, with a Bible, either gratuitously, or at such prices as that the poor can purchase. A second object is, to send it to other nations. For this purpose it has caused the Bible to be translated, either in whole, or in its most important parts, into various languages, and has sent it to destitute nations. The society have lately commenced a correspondence with the British and Foreign Bible Society, and with one in France, of the same character, the object of which is, to unite their efforts to send the Bible into every nation. The different denominations are united in this object, with the exception of the Roman catholics, who think that the dissemination of the Bible unaccompanied with the decrees of their church, and unexplained by their clergy, tends only to discord and heresy. This society depends also on voluntary contributions, collected principally through the medium of auxiliaries. The receipts of this society for the year ending May 1st, 1842, were one hundred and thirty-four thousand dollars, and two hundred and seventy-six thousand Bibles and Testaments circulated in twenty-one different languages.

OTHER BENEVOLENT INSTITUTIONS. Numerous other associations have been formed, having for their object the bettering of the condition of the human family, and the more general diffusion of correct principles and morals. Among the most prominent and useful, are the American Sunday School Union; the American Peace Society; the Prison Discipline Society; and the American Temperance Society. Their respective names designate their particular objects; and their exertions have accomplished much in the cause of humanity.

THE PENITENTIARY SYSTEM. Another subject in which American policy differs from that of European, and which is acknowledged to be a great improvement, is the penitentiary system; or the object, extent, and manner of inflicting punishments. When the ancestors of the American people emigrated, the penal code of their parent country was highly sanguinary. A considerable list of crimes was punishable with death, and those of inferior grades, with pains and penalties designed to render the convict publicly infamous. The early penal codes of the colonies, partook much of the same character, though generally with

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some mitigation. Torturing and disfiguring the body by stripes, cropping and branding, and exposing to public infamy in the pillory, were common modes of punishment. When imprisonment constituted the punishment, or a part of it, the convicts were huddled together in county jails, in filth and idleness.

It would be difficult to invent a system less calculated to answer the salutary ends of punishment, than that derived from the parent country, and generally adopted in the colonies before the revolution. The safety of society is the only legitimate object of punishment, by human tribunals. Revenge, or punishment for its own sake, should have no place.

By common consent, murder and treason, the latter consisting in an attempt to overthrow the government, have been considered as offences for which the convicts ought to suffer death, thereby effecting at once, the removal of the offender, and the determent of others. The manner, however, in which this punishment was formerly inflicted, and which is still practiced in most of the States, that of public execution, has a contrary effect from what was intended. By some unaccountable principle in human nature, such an exhibition draws together a great concourse of people to witness human suffering in one of its most degrading forms. Such assemblages rarely separate without some act of violence, and never with feelings calculated to render the perpetration of crime less frequent. In some of the States this mode has given way to the more salutary one of private executions, in the presence only of the officers of justice and their necessary attendants. Within a few years past the question of abolishing capital punishment has been made a subject of discussion, and many have avowed the belief that imprisonment for life should be substituted.

The punishments inflicted for crimes of less magnitude, were also in public, drawing together large assemblages. The culprit was thereby forever ruined. However penitent and disposed to reform he might be, he had not the opportunity. His punishment, and the manner of inflicting it, made him an outcast, and the enemy of society.

Next in order, and nearly as bad in its effects, is the imprisonment of offenders of different ages, and grades of offence, together in the same prisons. The older and more expert offenders, initiate their younger and inexperienced associates, in the mysteries of crime, and the whole come out more contaminated, more embittered against society, and often associated together for renewed depredations.

ORIGIN IN THE UNITED STATES. The proportion of persons who set themselves in array against the laws and peace of society, to its whole population cannot be ascertained, with any degree of accuracy.

What should be done with offenders after conviction, and

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how society can best be protected from crime, are questions on which statesmen and philanthropists in the United States have bestowed much attention. In considering them, as in relation to most others regarding the principles of government, they have the advantage of European politicians, inasmuch as they have not so many and so long established pre-conceived notions to combat. The system in general practice previous to the adoption of the American constitution, was confessedly bad.

As early as the year 1787, Doctor Rush, an eminent physician and philanthropist of Philadelphia, conceived the idea, and pressed upon the consideration of the public, the principle of lessening the number of capital crimes, and mitigating the punishment of imprisonment, by rendering it less injurious to the offender, and less expensive to the public. His views on the first point were warmly seconded by the society of friends, a very respectable portion of the citizens of Philadelphia, who believe that the punishment of death ought not to be inflicted. In accordance with his opinion relating to imprisonment, the Walnut street prison in Philadelphia was placed upon the footing of a penitentiary, some years afterwards, and a portion of state convicts sentenced to hard labor therein. They were kept under a strict surveillance, taught various trades, and made to practice habits of industry, by which they might afterwards acquire an honest subsistence.

About the same time the criminal code of Pennsylvania was revised, and a considerable additional number of offences made punishable by confinement in this prison, which first assumed the name and character of a penitentiary, that is, a place of reformation as well as of punishment. The fare of the convicts was coarse, but wholesome, and they were made to earn their living. This was a great improvement upon the scheme which Pennsylvania had formerly adopted, that of compelling them to work on the public ways. This plan, copied from some European nations, was liable to many objections. It afforded opportunities for escape; it required an expensive guard; the convicts, chained to wheel-barrows, presented a disgusting public spectacle, and exposed them to infamy. After a short trial, this plan was abandoned by the state, and that of prison labor substituted. The first experiment was a great improvement upon the old system, but was imperfect. The prisoners were lodged and fed together. The old and experienced offenders had abundant facilities to corrupt the young, and all had opportunities to form associations for future crime.

Other States observing the good effects as well as the imperfections of the Pennsylvania system, set about revising their criminal codes, and adopting its principal features with important improvements, the principles of which were, confinement in solitary cells when not at labor, receiving their food also in their cells, and a prohibition of any conversation when together,

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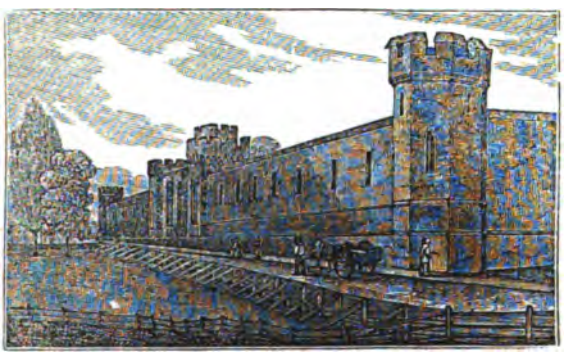
strictly enforced. This plan has been adopted in several states, and the convicts made to yield a revenue, instead of being an expense to the government. It has been found, however, to be impossible to prevent all intercourse between the prisoners when at work together. Notwithstanding the utmost vigilance, acquaintances would be formed, and plans of future mischief devised. Pennsylvania perceiving the imperfections of her first improved plans, resorted to that of entire solitary confinement, day and night, without labor and without intercourse with any human being. This was found to be a punishment so severe, that the system could not endure it but for a short period, without producing weakness, distraction or death. The imperfections of all these plans have been thought to be removed by the one recently adopted in the eastern penitentiary of Pennsylvania. In this prison, situated on Cherry hill, in the neighborhood of Philadelphia, separate cells of eight by twelve feet, with a court yard of the same dimensions, are provided for each prisoner.



Eastern Penitentiary, Philadelphia.

The cells are so constructed as to exclude all intercourse between the inmates of each. On being brought to the prison the convict is furnished with a decent prison dress, and numbered with the number of the cell appropriated to him, and is never known within its walls by any other appellation, and never allowed to go out side the yard attached to his cell, until the expiration of his term. The court before which he was convicted being supposed to have done its duty, no inquiry is made in relation to his sentence, except as to the length of the time of his confinement. The convict is furnished with a bible, and with the means of keeping himself and his habitation free from filth. The cells communicate with a space or corridor, from which the prisoners are fed, and where religious services, adapted to their condition, is performed on the Sabbath in their hearing. Their

coarse, but wholesome fare, costs about seven cents per day. Their labor consists principally in weaving and shoe-making, with several other kinds of handy craft. Punishment for any refractory behavior consists principally in a deprivation of labor, and sometimes with a diminution of fare.

At the expiration of his term, the prisoner is furnished with a decent dress, and a small sum of money, to convey him to his home, or to some retreat where he may begin a new life.

STATE OF THE EASTERN PENITENTIARY OF PENNSYLVANIA. The system has been in operation in this prison about eleven years. The cholera of 1832, which raged with great fury in the Arch street prison, did not reach this. The condition and the fare of the prisoners is considered as conducive to health. The beneficial results expected from this establishment are,

1st. That it will be a terror to evil doers, solitary confinement being a punishment the most dreaded.

2d. The reformation of the offender, by giving him religious instruction, and an opportunity for the full operation of conscience.

3d. The preventing of all communication, and further corruption of manners, necessarily attended on any mode of collective imprisonment.

4th. Enabling the discharged convict to begin life anew, without the public's having any previous knowledge of his bad character.

It need not be remarked, that whether the state gains or loses a small sum by its convicts, is a matter of no consideration, compared with the other objects of criminal jurisprudence. So well satisfied have the legislature of Pennsylvania been of the superior excellence, of this system, that they have appropriated $130,000 to complete the building of the eastern penitentiary; and $60,000 to place the western on the same footing. The legislature of the state of New Jersey, at their session in 1832, passed an act directing the erection of a state prison on the same principles. The experiment has thus far been successful.

The employment of state prisoners in the mechanic arts, has occasioned a complaint from persons engaged in the same business, in several of the large cities, that it cheapens the articles of their manufacture to that degree, that they are unable to meet the competition in market. They also complain that the convict is taught a trade at the expense of government, which has cost the honest mechanic a long and expensive apprenticeship, with whose after labors he also has to contend, and with whom he may be obliged to associate. It is much to be regretted, that the interests of this large and useful class of citizens should interfere with a great public object. Their representations will no doubt receive a candid examination by the legislatures to whom they may be addressed.

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DISPOSITION OF PRISONERS BEFORE TRIAL. One defect, however in the criminal jurisprudence of the country, seems not yet to be provided for. Weeks, and sometimes months, intervene, between the apprehension of a prisoner and his trial, during which, several are usually confined together, exposing them to all the dangers of contamination. It is a humane maxim of the law, that every person is to be deemed and treated as innocent, until proved guilty in a court of justice by legal testimony. It is, however, an acknowledged fact, that a majority of the acquittals arise from the failure of testimony, rather than from the absence of guilt. Solitary confinement, with every accommodation consistent with the safe keeping of the prisoner, would seem to be the proper mode during this interval. In the rare instances where an innocent person is arrested and held to trial, he would prefer such a confinement to an association with real offenders; and as to others, it is but an earlier commencement in a mitigated form, of a salutary discipline.

HOUSES OF REFUGE. Nearly allied to the penitentiary system, and as a branch of it, is the establishment of houses of refuge, an institution which has recently grown up in the principal Atlantic cities. A house of refuge is a prison or place of confinement, with a yard to a considerable extent, secured by an outer wall. It is designed for vagabond children, subsisting by beggary in idleness, and poverty, and who may not have been convicted of any specific crimes, and also for juvenile convicts. Both descriptions abound in large cities; their haunts are the nurseries where older offenders have received the rudiments of their education. Any thing which goes to ameliorate the condition of children of this character, has a powerful effect upon the well being of society. The police magistrates have a discretionary power of sending them to the houses of refuge without limitation of time, leaving it to the discretion of the managers to discharge each individual whenever in their opinion his own good will justify. The children are received and placed under the direction of a superintendent, and a competent number of assistants. Their time is divided between labor and schooling. A reasonable portion of it is employed in learning and practising useful trades; and the residue in school, where they are instructed in the rudiments of knowledge, and in morals, and religion; they are furnished also with proper Sabbath instruction. At a suitable time they are discharged from the house of refuge and apprenticed out. The managers always prefer sending them at a distance from their former haunts in the city.

These institutions are the offspring of private charities, more or less aided by legislative grants. It is difficult to find an object on which charity can be more beneficially bestowed; or to assign a satisfactory reason why they have been so sparingly fostered by state legislatures.

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REPORT OF FRENCH COMMISSIONERS. The American Penitentiary system, which has gradually grown up to its present condition, has attracted the attention of the philanthropists and legislators of Europe. Malte Brun speaks of it in 1836, as it existed in its imperfect state, in Walnut street prison, in Philadelphia, in terms of high commendation. The French government have lately commissioned two distinguished citizens, G. de Beaumont and A. de Tocqueville, counsellors of the Royal court at Paris, to visit the penitentiaries of the United States, and report upon their condition, principles, excellencies, and defects, with a view to ameliorate the penal code of France. These gentlemen spent a year in the United States, on the business of their mission, visiting the principal penitentiaries and houses of refuge, and informing themselves of their condition, character, and the principles upon which they were founded. They returned to France towards the close of the year 1832.

In their report, they acknowledge with gratitude the facilities accorded to them in prosecuting their inquiries, and speak in high terms of the penitentiary system, including houses of refuge, giving the preference to the plan of the eastern penitentiary of Pennsylvania. They recommend adopting the system in France, with some improvements, in preference to the transportation or any other disposition of their convicts. This report has been translated and published at Philadelphia, constituting, with its accompanying documents, a volume of three hundred pages, and forming one of the best treatises upon the subject.

IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT. The principles which are gaining ground in relation to imprisonment for debt, should be noticed as another instance of modern improvement, originating in the United States. Heretofore, the unfortunate debtor who was unable to meet his engagements, has been treated as a criminal, and subjected to a punishment of a most severe kind, that of imprisonment for an indefinite period, at the will of his creditor. In some instances in the laws of the last century, provision has been made that his body might be assigned in service to the creditor, which in case of a debt of any considerable amount, would subject him to perpetual personal slavery. In all cases, where the debtor's property is exhausted, his imprisonment can only serve to distress him and his family, and to deprive society of his labor. It is sometimes done in the hope of extorting payment from his friends, an illegitimate object. In most cases, imprisonment is attended with loss as well to the creditor as the debtor. The modern prevailing sentiment on this subject is, that the mere inability to pay a debt is not criminal, nor is it any evidence of guilt; that it often arises from accident, or circumstances beyond the control of the debtor; that laws there-

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fore, which subject him to imprisonment at the will of the creditor, are wrong in principle, and inefficacious in producing the desired object; and that the only correct course of legislation is to give the creditor every facility to avail himself of the property of his debtor.

In accordance with these views, in some of the states, imprisonment for debt, unaccompanied with fraud, is wholly abolished, and in most, or all of the others, the debtor's body may be liberated on his delivering up his property for general distribution among his creditors.

One important result is, that credit will be given only to the property of the person seeking it, or to his character for industry and integrity. From facts ascertained by recent examinations, it appears that the costs which creditors have subjected themselves to, in procuring the imprisonment of their debtors, has much exceeded the amount of collections thereby enforced.

AMERICAN IMPROVEMENTS EXTENDING TO EUROPE. Four great principles of civil policy have had their origin in the United States. One, that government derives its powers from the people, to be exercised for their good. A second, that government should not interfere with the consciences of the people in relation to their religion, or exclusively patronize or support any one system. A third regards the penitentiary system, and the fourth, the abolishing or ameliorating imprisonment for debt.

It is one of the important results of the extended commercial intercourse between nations, that they thereby become acquainted with each other's improvements in every thing which relates to the well being of society. These principles, so important to human happiness, are gradually making their way in Europe, some of them against powerful prejudices and combinations, but in all, the progress is onward.

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CHAPTER XV.

Relation of the States to the Federal government. Maine. Its boundaries. Number of inhabitants. Its constitution. Its northern boundary. New Hampshire. Its climate. Longevity of its inhabitants. Constitution. White mountains. Education. Dartmouth college; its origin and present condition. Vermont. Its constitution. Council of censors. Colleges. Different claims on its territory. Green mountain boys. Ethan Allen. Anecdotes of him. Massachusetts. Its commerce; manufactories; fisheries. Education. Colleges. Landing of the Pilgrims. Their constitution. Salem witchcraft. Constitution; its provisions as to religion. Numbers of each House. Destruction of the tea. Battle of Lexington. Internal Improvements. Rhode Island. Its first settlement. Education. Brown University. Difficulties in Rhode Island. Connecticut. Its population. First settlement. Constitution; the appointing power. Yale College. Its origin, and present condition. Other literary institutions. Asylum for the deaf and dumb. School fund; its origin, amount, and present condition. Its management. Principles of distribution; improvement in its application. Internal Improvements. Farmington canal. Rail Roads. New York. Its western section. Salt Springs. Its constitution. Exclusion of clergymen from civil office. Safety Fund banks. Educatian. Colleges. Asylums for deaf and dumb. Canals. Rail Roads. City of New York; the great fire. Croton Aqueduct. Aaron Burr. Anecdotes of his contest for the Presidency of 1801. Duel with Hamilton. His treasonable projects. Trial and acquittal. New Jersey. Its constitution. Colleges. Common education. Canals. Rail Roads. Chief towns. Paterson. Newark. Pennsylvania. Its constitution. Colleges. Common education. Internal improvements. Route from Philadelphia to Pittsburg. Amount of state debt, and expenditures for internal improvements. Private enterprizes. Coal mines; when and how discovered, and brought into use. Iron mines. Philadelphia. Its population. Fairmount water works. Gerard's benefactions. His college. Pittsburg. Braddock's field. Grant of Pennsylvania to William Penn. Anecdotes of him.

RELATION OF THE STATES TO THE UNITED STATES. In considering the condition of the several states, it should be borne in mind that they are sovereign and independent communities, or nations, in every thing relating to their internal concerns, and in every thing in which they have not surrendered a portion of this sovereignty to the general government, by the Federal Constitution. Wherever this is done, the people, the state

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authorities, and the United States, collectively, are bound to yield obedience so far as the provisions of the constitution demand it.

MAINE. Maine is the northeasternmost state in the Union, and is bounded north and east by the British possessions, south by the ocean, and west by New Hampshire, extending from 43 to 48 degrees north latitude, 225 miles in length, and 185 in breadth, comprising thirty-three thousand square miles of territory, and 501,793 inhabitants. Its enrolled militia amounts to 46,338. Its principal exports are lumber and fish, amounting annually to about a million of dollars. The northern section of the state, being a mountainous country, and in a high latitude, is covered half the year with snow; its valleys are fertile, and vegetation rapid during the short summers.

Until 1820, Maine formed a part of the state of Massachusetts, when, with the consent of both sections, it was formed into a separate state, and admitted into the Union. Its population averages sixteen to each square mile of territory. Its constitution, formed in 1819, contains no distinctive features. The right of suffrage is vested in all male citizens of twenty-one years of age and upward, not excluding blacks. The legislative and executive branches are elected annually. The political year commences on the first Wednesday in January. The governor has a qualified negative on the acts of the legislature, similar in principle to that of the president of the United States. He has a council of seven persons, chosen by the legislature in joint ballot; and the appointment of all officers, judicial and executive, with their advice. The judges hold their offices during good behavior, with the salutary provision, that the tenure does not extend beyond the age of seventy. The constitution is prefaced by a bill of rights, designed to secure the people from being oppressed by their rulers.

COMMERCE. Maine enjoys great facilities for commerce. A long line of coast is indented with bays, abounding with excellent harbors. The principal bays are Casco, Penobscot, Machias, and Passamaquoddy. Its principal rivers, Penobscot and Kennebec, penetrate far into the interior, affording an easy transportation for its lumber and other productions. The river Kennebec is noted for being the scene of one of the most extraordinary expeditions of the revolutionary war. By this river, Arnold undertook to penetrate a wilderness of three hundred miles, to surprize Quebec. He accomplished the journey in the months of October and November, 1775, but with a force so enfeebled, that the main object failed.

The principal commercial city is Portland, formerly Falmouth, standing on a peninsula at the head of Casco bay, 110 miles northeast of Boston. It has a population of 15,218 inhabitants.

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This town, the oldest in the state, was burned by the British in 1775, but so far from having the effect of intimidating the inhabitants, it excited their keenest resentment, and that of the whole country. Maine has forty banks, with a capital of $3,414,000. Bills in circulation, $1,585,820. Specie on hand, $183.861.

Augusta, the capital, is on the Kennebec river, fifty miles from its mouth. It contains a population of 5,314. The United States have an arsenal in this city. Bangor, on the Penobscot river, has increased in a remarkable degree for an eastern town. The increase of population between 1820 and 1830 was 130 per cent.; in 1830 the population was 2,867, and in 1840, 8,627; showing an increase, in these ten years, of more than two hundred per cent. Bangor owes much of its prosperity to the lumber trade.

ITS LITERARY INSTITUTIONS. Its principal literary institutions are Bowdoin college at Brunswick, founded in 1794; number of students, one hundred and ninety. Waterville, a baptist institution, founded in 1820, number of students, seventy-five. Maine Wesleyan Seminary, founded in 1825, at Readfield, in the county of Kennebec, designed to educate young men of the methodist denomination, for the ministry. It is, in part, a manual labor school; employment sufficient to defray the expenses of board being furnished for sixty students. The whole number is one hundred and forty-three. There are, also, numerous academies. Each town is, by law, required to raise a sum equal to forty cents to each inhabitant, for the support of free common schools.

The first newspaper published in Maine, was in 1785.

CONTESTED BOUNDARY. The state of Maine borders on two sides on the British possessions; its boundaries have been the subject of unpleasant controversies. It is now settled by treaty stipulations. The adjustment of this question is described on page 73 of this work.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. New Hampshire adjoins the state of Maine on the east, and is separated from Vermont by Connecticut river on the west. It extends from the Atlantic to the southern border of Canada, a distance of 168 miles; its greatest breadth is 90 miles, containing an area of 9491 square miles, and 284,547 inhabitants, being thirty to each square mile of territory. Its enrolled militia amounts to 28,762.

The constitution of this state, as revised and amended in 1792, varies in no important principle from those of other states. The executive and legislative departments are annually elected, and commence their duties on the first Wednesday in June. Its inhabitants are principally agriculturists. Its soil is sufficiently fertile to yield a competent support to the industrious

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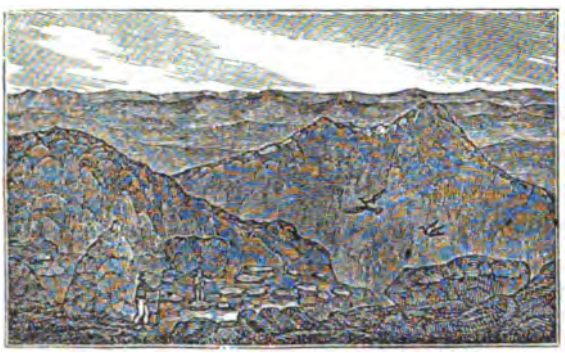
husbandman, but gives him no time to be idle. It borders but eighteen miles on the sea, and Portsmouth is its only harbor. The climate is subject to the extremes of heat and cold, and to great and sudden changes. The air is pure and salubrious. To their climate, and to their frugal and industrious habits, is to be attributed the remarkable longevity of its inhabitants. Winter usually commences in November and ends in April.

WHITE MOUNTAINS. The white mountains in the northern section of the state, are the highest in the United States east of the Mississippi. They are in latitude 44°, and distant from



White Mountains.

Portsmouth, in a northwesterly direction, eighty miles. Their base is twenty miles in length, and ten in breadth. The five highest peaks are dignified with the names of the first five Presidents. The summit of mount Washington is 6234 feet, and

Gap, White Mountains, New Hampshire.

its base 1770 above the level of the sea. One of the branches of the Connecticut, and the principal branches of the Merrimac

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river have their sources in these mountains. Forest trees cover their sides, but vegetation decreases towards the top, and entirely ceases at some distance from the summit. They are covered with ice and snow ten months in the year. Though situated sixty miles from the ocean, at the nearest point, they are seen at a considerable distance from the coast. The notch in these mountains is a natural curiosity. It is a narrow defile extending two miles in length between two cliffs. The entrance of the chasm is formed by two perpendicular rocks, twenty-two feet apart. The mountain, otherwise a continued range, is here cloven asunder, opening a passage for the Saco river.

EDUCATION. New Hampshire has no considerable funds for the support of common schools; they are, however, well provided for by taxes on the inhabitants, so that the children of the poor as well as the rich, enjoy their benefits. The sum annually raised is ninety thousand dollars, to which is added the avails of a tax of one half of one per cent. on the actual capital of the several banks in the state, amounting to ten thousand dollars, giving something more than one dollar a year to each child of suitable age for schooling.

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE. Dartmouth college, pleasantly situated on the east bank of Connecticut river, in the town of Hanover, in the northern section of the state, was incorporated in 1769. A few years previous to that time, Eleazar Wheelock, a respectable clergyman of the congregational order in Connecticut, formed a plan of educating Indians of the Mohegan tribe in that state, and qualifying some of the most promising of them for the ministry, believing this to be the most rational scheme of converting them to Christianity. For this purpose, he proposed to found a college, devoted exclusively to the education of the Indians of this and other tribes. Having partially educated several in his private school, he sent them under the charge of another clergyman to England, exhibiting them as specimens of the Indian character, and of what might be done by giving them a public education. His solicitations for contributions to this object succeeded to that degree, that he was enabled to found a college and commence its operations in 1770. The place selected was then a wilderness, but in a few years became a flourishing and pleasant town.

But few Indians ever received an education at the college; one only of Doctor Wheelock's pupils became a preacher, and he soon lost his character by intemperance. The object of making learned men, and preachers of the gospel, or improving in any considerable degree the condition of the Indians, wholly failed. The institution, however, as a college for the education of American youth, flourished. Doctor Wheelock gave it the name of Dartmouth, in honor of the Earl of Dartmouth, one of

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its principal benefactors. Its founder officiated as president for the first ten years, and his son for the succeeding thirty. This institution, the only one in the state, now ranks among the first of the American colleges. The number of students is three hundred and thirty-one.

The number of banks is twenty-eight. Capital, $2,939,000. Bills in circulation, $1,510,691. Specie on hand, $187,961.

Portsmouth is a considerable commercial town, it is the only seaport in the state, and is one of the naval stations of the United States. Its number of inhabitants is 7,887. Concord is a pleasant inland town, forty-five miles northwest of Portsmouth, on the Merrimac river, and the seat of government. It contains 4,897 inhabitants. There is a rail road leading from Concord to Nashua, and connecting with the Boston and Lowell rail road.

VERMONT. Vermont borders upon Lower Canada on the north, in latitude 45°, on lake Champlain and New York on the west, and Massachusetts on the south. Its breadth on the Canada border is ninety miles, and forty on the southern, and its length 150, containing ten thousand square miles, and 291, 948 inhabitants, being twenty nine to the square mile. Its enrolled militia amount to 27,536. Its name, Vermont, or Green Mountain, is taken from a high range of hills which extend from Canada, through the states of Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, to the borders of the Atlantic. Their highest points are in this state, and nearly equally divide it into eastern and western sections. It is entirely an inland and agricultural state. Its trade, serving only to supply the inhabitants with articles not produced or manufactured by themselves, is with Boston, Hartford, New York and Montreal; and being thus in different directions, has not been sufficient in any one, to lead to those improvements in rail roads and canals for which other States have of late been distinguished.

ITS CONSTITUTION. By the constitution of Vermont, as amended in 1836, the supreme legislative power is invested in two co-ordinate branches, a Senate and House of Representatives, both elected annually. The Senate consists of thirty members, each county being entitled to at least one, and the remainder are apportioned according to population; no person is eligible to the Senate unless thirty years of age. The House of Representatives is composed of one member from each town.

JUDICIARY. "The judiciary powers are vested in a supreme court, consisting of five judges, chosen every year by the legislature; in a county court consisting of three judges, chosen in the same manner, (one of the justices of the supreme court being chief justice) who hold courts twice a year in their respective counties; and in justices of the peace appointed in the same manner."

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COLLEGES. Vermont has three colleges, one at Burlington, founded in 1791, called the University of Vermont. Number of students 109. Another at Middlebury, founded in 1800. Students, 53. And Capt. Partridge's military academy at Norwich, founded in 1831. Students, 40.

Vermont, being an agricultural state, has few large towns. Bennington, Rutland, Middlebury and Burlington on the west, and Brattleborough, Windsor and Woodstock on the east of the mountains, are the most considerable. Montpelier, near the centre of the state is the seat of government, and contains 3,725 inhabitants. There are twenty banks in the state, with an authorized capital of $2,200,000.

ITS SETTLEMENT, AND CLAIMS. The territory of Vermont was included in the grant of Charles the Second, to the Duke of York, and was claimed by the colony and State of New York as part of its domain; and considerable quantities of land sold under authority of that state to individuals. The western limits in the original grant of New Hampshire were not defined; but in settling the southern boundary between that colony and Massachusetts in 1745, the line was run as far west as the west line of Massachusetts bordering on New York; and New Hampshire claimed that the same meridional line continued, constituted its western boundary; thereby including the whole territory of Vermont. Fort Dunmore was erected on the west bank of Connecticut river, as a defence against Indian incursions, and placed by order of the king under the governor of New Hampshire; which seemed to strengthen the claim. The country was not sought after for settlement, until the war of 1756 opened it to the view of New England troops, as they passed through it on their route to Canada. Soon after the peace of 1763, which terminated that war, a hardy race of yeomanry emigrated from New England into the territory. The governor of New Hampshire made liberal grants at small rates, and the whole country was for some time known by the name of the New Hampshire grants. Some portions of it were taken up by settlers, claiming it as vacant, and without a grant from any authority. In the mean time, the state of New York claimed to extend jurisdiction over the whole, to the west bank of Connecticut river. In this manner, and under these conflicting claims, at the commencement of the war of the revolution, there was on this territory a considerable, though sparse population, designated by the name of "Green Mountain boys."

ETHAN ALLEN. One of the most distinguished among the early settlers, was Ethan Allen, an emigrant from Connecticut, a man of strong mental powers, but of a limited education. His principal characteristic was a fearless mind, which led him to pursue the objects of his choice, without consideration, and regardless of consequences. He placed himself at the head of

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the Green Mountain boys, and resisted the exercise of any authority over them, either by New Hampshire or New York. Process in favor of New York claimants to obtain possession, was successfully opposed by arms. Liberal offers were made at the commencement of the war to induce them to join the British forces in Canada. These were rejected, and the Green Mountain boys with their intrepid leader, took an active and decided part in favor of the revolution. Allen was appointed a brigadier general in the American service, and in May. 1775, at the request of the legislature of Connecticut, undertook the reduction of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, two important fortresses on the borders of Lake Champlain. For this purpose he collected a body of 230 Green Mountain boys, and at Castleton was joined by colonel Arnold, who had received a commission from the committee of safety of Massachusetts to raise a corps of men for the same purpose; but failing to accomplish that object, he determined to proceed with the small force under Allen. They arrived at the lake opposite Ticonderoga on the evening of the 9th of May, and having with great difficulty procured boats, Allen landed eighty-three men on the other shore during the night. The day beginning to dawn, he was obliged to attack the fort before his rear could cross the lake. He animated his soldiers with a harrangue, which concluded with saying, "Green Mountaineers, I now propose to advance before you through the wicket-gate, but as it is a desperate attempt, I do not urge any one contrary to his will; you that will follow me, poise your firelocks." Every firelock was poised, and in a few minutes, the fort with its garrison and valuable military stores was in possession of Allen. The same day he took possession of the other fortress, and, shortly after captured a sloop of war, the only armed force on the lake. In the same summer he was twice despatched into Canada to engage its inhabitants to join the Americans. In his last excursion he formed the plan of taking Montreal, and for this purpose was accompanied by 110 of his Green Mountaineers. He was attacked by a British force of 500 men, and with his whole party taken. He was immediately put in irons and transported to England, to be tried for high treason. He was treated with great severity on his passage, and threatened with the halter; at the same time a commission and liberal proposals were offered him if he would join the king's service. They were rejected with indignation. Allen and thirty-four of his comrads were hand-cuffed and thrust into a hole twenty-two feet by twenty. After a month's confinement in Pendennis castle, Allen was transported to Halifax, and from thence to New York. After a confinement of nearly three years, he was exchanged as a prisoner of war for a British colonel.

Allen was a professed infidel, and adopted, as the foundation of his creed, the pagan system of the transmigration of souls

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into the bodies of the brute creation, assigning to himself that of a white horse, for his future residence. A circumstance, however, took place in the latter period of his life, which indicates that he professed these notions more from an affectation of singularity, than from a conviction of their truth. While sitting in his library, conversing with Dr. Elliot, he was told that his daughter was dying, and wished to speak with him. He immediately repaired to her chamber, followed by Dr. Elliot. His wife was as distinguishsd for her piety, as Allen was for his paganism. Both parents had instructed their daughter in their respective principles. As he stood by her bed side, she thus addressed him: "Father, I am about to die, shall I believe in the principles you have taught me, or shall I believe in what my mother has taught me?" The question thus addressed to him greatly agitated him, and drew tears. After pausing a few moments, he replied, "believe what your mother has taught you."

The inhabitants of Vermont, denying the jurisdiction of any state over them, formed a temporary government for themselves; and during the interval between the peace and the establishment of the federal constitution, stood aloof from all connection with the confederacy. In 1790, a compromise took place, by which the state of Vermont agreed to pay the New York claimants $30,000; and that state, together with the claimants under its grants, relinquished all further demands relating to the jurisdiction and soil. In 1791 it was admitted into the Union, constituting the fourteenth state.

MASSACHUSETTS. Massachusetts borders upon Vermont and New Hampshire on the north, on New York on the west, and

Tremont House. Faneuil Hall.

Hospital. King's Chapel.

Connecticut and Rhode Island on the south. Boston, its capi-

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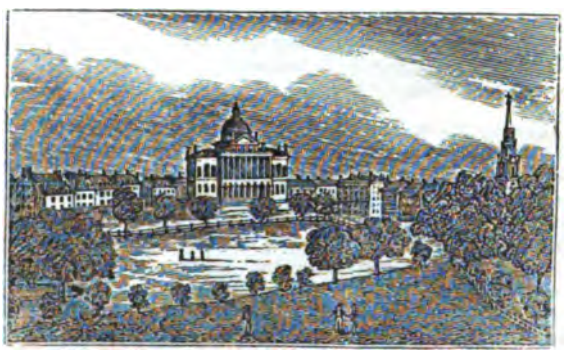
tal, and the principal commercial city of New England, is in latitude 42° 22′ north. Its population is 93,383. It is situated on a small peninsula at the west end of Massachusetts bay, at the mouth of Charles river. It has a spacious harbor, of sufficient depth for the largest ships, and protected from storms by numerous small islands. Its principal public buildings are the State House, built of brick, situated in the highest part of the city, and commanding an extensive view of the country and bay; Faneuil Hall, in which city meetings, and public assemblies for the discussion of political subjects are held, a building venerable for its antiquity, and for being the place where resistance by force to the demands of Great Britain were first publicly advocated; and the Massachusetts General Hospital. The most celebrated private building, is the Tremont house, built of grey stone, with a portico in front, supported by fluted columns. This is one of the most elegant and commodious hotels in the United States. The



State House, Boston.

principal public square is the Common, which, with the mall, a gravelled walk which encompasses it, covers an area of fifty acres. It is shaded by elms, and surrounded by some of the most elegant buildings in the city.

One mile north of the center of Boston, and connected with it by a splendid bridge over Charles river, is Charlestown. Within this town is Bunker Hill, rising a considerable height from the river. On this hill was fought one of the first and most celebrated battles of the revolution, where undisciplined American valor successfully contended with British veterans. A splendid monument has been erected on the ground, the foundation stone of which was laid June 17th, 1825, the fiftieth anniversary of the battle. The monument was completed on

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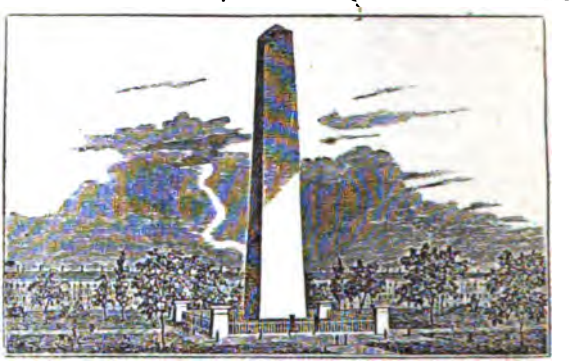

Bunker Hill Monument.

the 23d of July, 1842; its height is 220 feet. On the seaboard are the flourishing and commercial towns of Salem, New Bedford, and Newburyport. In the interior, Worcester, Northampton, and Pittsfield.

EXTENT, NAVIGATION AND FISHERIES. The length of the state from east to west is 180 miles, and breadth 90, containing 16,000 square miles, and 737,699 inhabitants.

Massachusetts, possessing an extensive line of coast, and a number of excellent harbors, is, next to New York, the most commercial state in the Union. The value of its imports in 1842, was over twenty millions of dollars, and of its exports, eleven and a half millions. More shipping and seamen are engaged in the fisheries in this state, than in all the others. The fisheries are of three kinds; the whale, which is carried on in distant seas, by ships fitted out principally from New Bedford and Nantucket. The cod, carried on principally on the north-eastern coast of the United States, on the banks of Newfoundland, and on the coast of Labrador; and the mackerel, confined chiefly to its own coasts. Of these, the first is altogether the most important.

The land bordering on the sea is principally a barren sand; the soil not furnishing the inhabitants with subsistence, they have sought it from the ocean, and their enterprize has been amply rewarded. The war of 1812 suspended the fisheries, and induced capitalists to turn their attention to manufactures, to which the abundance of water power in various parts of the state was highly favorable. Numerous manufacturing establishments grew up, and have greatly contributed to the wealth of the state. Those of Lowell exceed any in the United States.

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LOWELL. This village is situated at the junction of the Concord and Merrimac rivers, twenty five miles north westerly from Boston, was incorporated in 1826, and took its name from Francis Lowell, who was distinguished by his early and successful efforts in introducing the cotton manufacture into the United States. The water power in this place is produced by a canal from the Merrimac, one and a half miles in length, sixty feet broad, and eight feet depth of water. The entire fall is thirty feet, and the power estimated to be sufficient for fifty mills. There are twenty-six cotton factories in the place, and three dyeing and printing establishments, the annual value of whose manufactures, amounts to five and a half millions of dollars. The capital employed in these manufactures is eight millions; and seven thousand four hundred persons are engaged in their production. There are also four fulling mills and eight woollen manufactories, employing one thousand persons, and producing annually goods to the amount of $1,325,000. Lowell contains 20,796 inhabitants.

Harvard College.

HARVARD COLLEGE. Harvard College, at Cambridge, is the oldest, and most liberally endowed college in the United States. It was founded in 1638, ten years after the commencement of the settlement of the colony of Massachusetts. It takes its name from the principal donor. It comprises a department for undergraduates, and one for each of the learned professions. The legislative government is entrusted to a corporation consisting of the president, and six fellows, and a board of overseers, consisting of the governor, lieutenant governor, members of the council and senate, and speaker of the house of representatives ex-officio, and thirty elected members, consisting of an equal number of clergymen and laymen. The course of education requisite to obtain the degree of bachelor of arts, in this, as in

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the other American colleges, is completed in four years. In the theological school the term is three years, and the students are arranged into junior, middle and senior classes. Tuition in this school is furnished gratis, and further assistance given to the indigent. The law school was established in 1817. The term of study required is three years for those who are graduates of some college, and five for those who are not. Number of instructors in the college is thirty, and of undergraduates, two hundred and forty-five. It has a library of forty thousand volumes. There are two other colleges in the state, one at Williamstown, founded in 1793; number of students one hundred and forty-four; and the other at Amherst, founded in 1821; number of students one hundred and forty-two.

Amherst College.

There is a richly endowed and flourishing theological seminary at Andover, with four professors supported by permanent funds. The means of common education are provided at public expense, where the rudiments of learning are acquired from the same sources by children of all classes.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. There are about three thousand public schools in Massachusetts; number of scholars 122,000. The tax raised for the support of public schools amounts to about $500,000. In 1839 over one hundred thousand bushels of wheat were produced in this state, the counties of Berkshire and Worcester each raising about twenty-eight thousand bushels. The state bounty amounted to $9,280 14.

LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS. The first settlement in New England, was at Plymouth, thirty-six miles south-east of Boston, December 22d, 1620. The first written constitution of any country, was formed by these pilgrims previous to their landing, in the following words: "We do by these presents, solemnly and

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mutually, in the presence of God and of one another, covenant and combine ourselves together in a civil body politic. for our better ordering and preservation, and furtherance of the ends aforesaid; and by virtue hereof, to enact, constitute and frame such just and equal laws, ordinances, acts, constitutions and offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the general good of the colony, unto which we promise all due submission and obedience." This instrument is signed by forty-one persons, and dated Nov. 11th, 1620.

CONSTITUTION. The constitution of Massachusetts, formed in 1780, contains a bill of rights consisting of thirty articles explanatory of two propositions; one, that the people have a right to govern themselves by agents of their own choice; and the other, that their rulers shall not abuse their power. At this period, the descendants of the Puritans had not entirely divested themselves of the idea that the civil power should interpose its authority in matters of religion; and by the bill of rights the legislature are empowered to compel provision for public worship, and enjoin attendance thereon. The exclusive right of electing religious teachers is secured, and the citizen is allowed to choose the denomination for whose benefit his taxes are to be paid. The above provisions were repealed in 1833, and the connection between church and state is now, as it ever should be—dissolved.

Massachusetts has had more than twice as many representatives in her legislature as any other state in the Union; her constitution was amended in 1836 so as to reduce the number about one third.

DESTRUCTION OF THE TEA. This state took the lead in opposition to the measures of the British government which terminated in the revolution. The first opposition by force was the destruction of a cargo of tea in the harbor of Boston, March, 1773, by a number of respectable citizens, disguised as Indians. In repealing the other duties, a nominal one, equal to about four cents on the pound, was reserved by the British parliament on this article, for the purpose of preserving the general principle, of their right to tax the colonies. The citizens of Boston determined that it should not be landed in their port, and after urging the consignee not to attempt it, and warning him of the consequences, emptied it into the ocean. At the same time, a general agreement was entered into throughout the country, to discontinue the use of it entirely; any violation of which was punished by fixing on the offender the appellation of tory, and withdrawing from him the ordinary intercourse of society.

The first blood was shed in the cause at Lexington, April 17th, 1775, and the first continental army assembled at Cambridge, in the summer of the same year.

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INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. The first canal for the purposes of inland navigation, was constructed in this state. It is called the Middlesex canal, and opens a communication between Boston harbor and the Merrimac river at Chelmsford, a distance of twenty-seven miles. The company was incorporated in 1789; and the work completed in 1808. The summit level is one hundred and four feet above the waters of Boston harbor, and thirty-two above the level of the river, at the place of its junction. Its breadth at the bottom is twenty feet, and depth of water three feet; it cost $528,000.

The Quincy rail road, constructed solely for the purpose of transporting granite from a quarry in Quincy to Neponsit river, which empties into Boston harbor, was the first attempt of the kind in the United States. From these small beginnings, internal improvements have progressed to a great extent, and the following rail roads have been built; the eastern, from Boston to New Hampshire line, distance, 55 miles; the Boston and Lowell, 26 miles; the Boston and Portland, from Wilmington to New Hampshire line, 25 miles in length; the Lowell and Nashua, from Lowell to Concord, 62 miles; the Boston and Worcester, 45 miles; the western rail road, from Worcester to Albany, 156 miles; the Boston and Providence, 41 miles; the Taunton branch, from Mansfield to Taunton, 11 miles; the Taunton and New Bedford, 20 miles; the Norwich and Worcester, 59 miles. The canals in Massachusetts are the Middlesex, from Boston to Chelmsford, 27 miles; the Blackstone, from Providence to Worcester, 45 miles; the Hampshire and Hampden, from Connecticut line to Northampton, 22 miles.

The banks in Massachusetts are one hundred and ten in number, with a capital of $34,630,000.

RHODE ISLAND. Rhode Island is bordered on three sides by Massachusetts and Connecticut, and on the south by the ocean. It is the smallest of the United States in territory, being only fifty miles in length and thirty in breadth. It contains one thousand three hundred and fifty square miles, and one hundred and eight thousand eight hundred and thirty inhabitants, being eighty to a square mile.

The state originally consisted of two unconnected portions, one called Providence Plantations, settled in 1636, by Roger Williams and his associates, banished from Massachusetts on account of some peculiarities in their religious tenets; and the other, the island of Rhode Island, first settled by William Coddington and his associates, in 1683. This island is the most pleasant, fertile, and densely populated of any on the Atlantic coast, and often called the Eden of America. The air is peculiarly salubrious and bracing. The heat of summer, and the severe cold of winter are tempered by sea breezes. It furnishes a delightful retreat for invalids from the southern and middle

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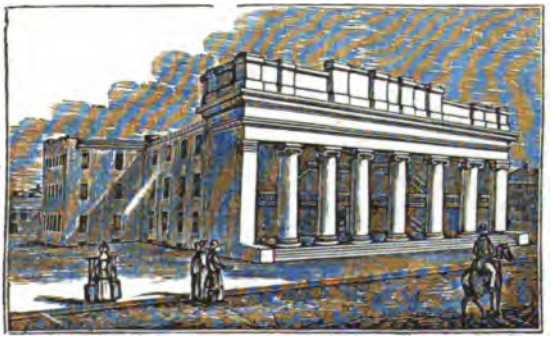
states, from the oppressive summer heats. The island is situated in Narragansett bay, in latitude 41°, and is fifteen miles long, and three and a half broad, divided into three towns, Newport, Middletown, and Portsmouth. It was occupied by the British during the greater part of the period of the revolutionary war, and suffered much from their ravages, having all its timber and fruit trees made use of for fuel. The harbor at the south end of the island, which spreads westerly before the town of Newport, is one of the best in the United States; it has a safe and convenient entrance from the sea, and is sufficiently spacious to accommodate the largest fleets. It is defended by three forts.

PROVIDENCE. Providence, the largest town in the state, and the second in New England, stands at the head of the tide waters of Narragansett bay, thirty miles from the sea, and forty south-westerly of Boston, and contains a population of twenty-three thousand one hundred seventy-one. It is ornamented with several elegant public buildings, the most distinguished of which are the first Baptist church, situated near the centre; the Arcade, containing a number of stores; and Brown University,



Arcade, Providence.

on a pleasant rising ground in the rear of the compact part of the town. This institution was founded in 1770, and takes its name from Nicholas Brown, one of its most munificent benefactors. Its government is vested in a board of twelve fellows, eight of whom, together with the President, must be of the Baptist denomination; and in a board of trustees consisting of thirty-six members, twenty-two of whom must be Baptists, five Friends, five Episcopalians, and four Congregationalists; number of students, one hundred and ninety-six.

This state has more tonnage, and more capital engaged in commerce, and in manufacturing establishments, in proportion to its numbers, than any other in the Union.

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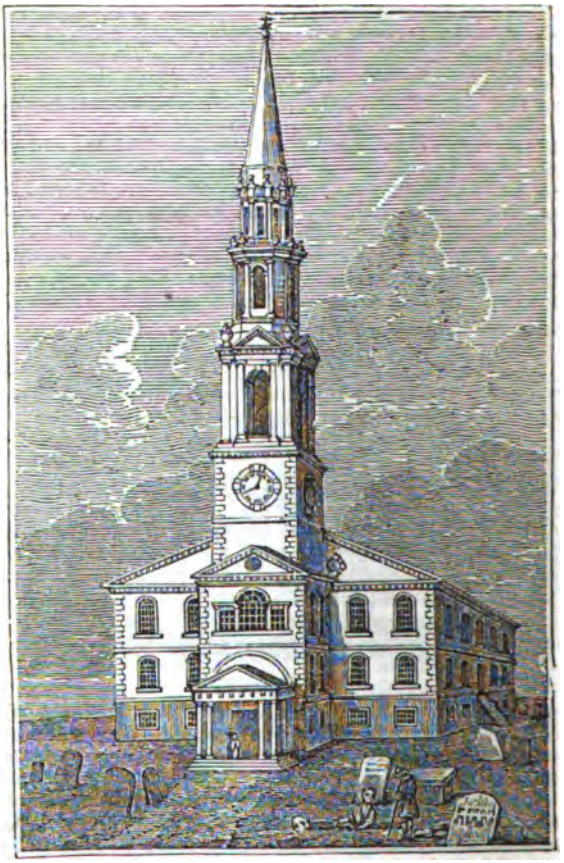
Rhode Island has sixty-two banks, with an authorized capital of $9,868,773. This state has adopted the principle of making the stockholders of their banks personally liable for the redemption of their bills, and for all debts due from them. Their bills, though of very limited circulation, are in good credit.



First Baptist Church, Providence, R. I.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT. This state is the only one which has no written constitution formally made and adopted by the people. The charter of Charles the Second, granted in 1675, contains a form of government, by which the colony and state

have been governed from that period to the present. Its legislative and executive officers are annually chosen by the people, and its judiciary annually appointed by the legislature. The annual salary of the governor is $400, and of the chief justice, $650. The judges of the court of common pleas are paid by fees collected of the suitors.

The charter contains the following provision, never before granted by royal authority to any subjects.

"No person within the said colony at any time hereafter, shall be any wise molested, punished, disquieted, or called in question, for any differences of opinion in matters of religion; but that all and every person may from time to time, and at all times hereafter, freely and fully have and enjoy his own and their judgments and consciences in matters of religious concernments, any law, statute or clause therein contained or to be contained, usage or custom of this realm to the contrary hereof, in any wise notwithstanding."

DIFFICULTIES IN RHODE ISLAND. A person in order to vote in Rhode Island, must be possessed of a freehold estate of the value of one hundred and thirty-four dollars, or be the eldest son of a freeholder. Attempts have several times been unsuccessfully made to extend the right of suffrage; in January 1841, the legislature passed an act appointing a convention to meet at Providence on the first Monday in November following, the delegates to be chosen by the legal voters. This body met in November, and being unable to agree, adjourned until February, 1842.

In October, 1841, a convention of delegates elected by the friends of free suffrage, without any action of the legislature on the subject, met at Providence and formed a constitution, commonly called the people's constitution, which was submitted to the people in December 1841, and declared as adopted, it having been said to have received a vote larger than half the number of adult white male inhabitants in the state. This constitution extended the right of suffrage to all white male citizens of the United States who had lived in Rhode Island one year, and in any town, city, or district of the same, six months next preceding the time of voting, and the friends of the constitution claimed, that representatives were appointed with strict reference to population.

In February 1842, the convention, called by some the "regular," and by others the "charter" convention, met according to adjournment, and framed a constitution which gave the right of suffrage to all native citizens on two years residence, without reference to property, and to naturalized citizens on three years residence with the old property qualifications, and all those who could vote under it, were authorized by the legislature to vote on its adoption. Some of the people opposed this constitution,

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because they thought the "suffrage constitution" had already been adopted; others disliked it because they considered its provisions in regard to the right of suffrage too liberal; others again objected to it because they considered these provisions too restricted in relation to naturalized citizens, and because they regarded the apportionment of representatives as unequal, and the constitution was rejected by a small majority.

In April 1842, Thomas W. Dorr was elected Governor under the people's constitution, and other state officers, and representatives were chosen, the opponents of the measure taking no part in the proceeding, and receiving it as unauthorized and illegal.

Previous to this period the legislature acting under the charter, passed a law, declaring the exercise of any office under the "people's constitution" so called, to be treason.

In May 1842, the suffrage legislature assembled, the new government was declared as organized, and proof of its choice by the people was tendered to the legislature acting under the charter, this latter body refused to investigate the evidence, claiming that no constitution could be established without their consent, and that the instrument designated the "people's constitution," was therefore of no effect.

This state of affairs, where two governors, and two sets of officers throughout the state claimed the same powers, did not long remain without disturbance, the old government which had throughout retained possession of the state house and other public property, seemed determined to enforce its laws against those whom they regarded as rebels, and a portion of the suffrage party thought that the public property should be taken by violence.

About this period, Mr. King, as Governor of Rhode Island, addressed a communication to the President of the United States, declaring that an insurrection existed in Rhode Island, and requesting the intervention of the general government to suppress it, Mr. Tyler replied in a communication, in which he informed the government acting under the charter, that in case the physical force at their command proved insufficient, the United States troops would be employed to put down any attempts against their authority.

On the 18th of May a body of men under the command of Mr. Dorr, attempted to seize the arsenal, and were repulsed, Dorr left the state, and on the 28th of June returned, and with a few hundred men took possession of a hill in Chepachet. Martial law was proclaimed throughout the state by Mr. King, the governor under the charter, and about three thousand militia were ordered to attack the suffrage forces; the troops under Dorr, in consequence of these measures, dispersed, and Dorr again left the state. Mr. King issued requisitions against Dorr, addressed to the chief magistrates of some of the neighboring

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states, the governors of New York and Massachusetts were ready to surrender him, the governors of Connecticut and New Hampshire refused to give him up.

In June 1842, the Rhode Island legislature, acting under the charter, called another convention to meet at Providence in September, the delegates to be elected on the basis of population, by all native citizens who had resided in the state three years—this convention assembled at the appointed time, and after deliberating on the business before them, adjourned to meet again in November following.

The discussion of the Rhode Island difficulties has led to the assertion of two antagonistic principles, the one is, that all power is inherent in the people, and that they have the right to exercise it in establishing a new government, or changing an old one, in such manner as they may deem expedient; the other principle is, that no change can be made in a government without the consent of the existing authorities, and that any attempt on the part of the people, to establish, or change a government without such consent is treasonable.

CONNECTICUT. The state of Connecticut borders on Rhode Island east, on Massachusetts north, on New York west, and on Long Island Sound south. Its average breadth is fifty miles, and length ninety, lying between 41° and 42° north latitude. It contains 4828 square miles, and 309,978 inhabitants, averaging sixty-four to a square mile. Its militia numbers 43,176. According to the census of 1790, the inhabitants then amounted to 237,946, giving an increase of 72,032 in fifty years, or 1448 annually, being only one sixth of one per cent. This increase, small as it is, is principally owing to the establishment of several manufacturing villages. Many of the farming towns have had no increase.

Connecticut has probably sent forth more emigrants to the west, in proportion to her population, than any other state. Could they and their descendants for the last forty years, be brought back and placed upon her soil, her population would be more dense than any country in Europe.

The annual civil list expenditure averages eighty thousand dollars, embracing all legislative, executive, and judiciary expenses, the support of state paupers, and appropriations to public buildings and institutions. This sum is less than the income of the school fund annually distributed among the people for the support of common schools.

ITS FIRST SETTLEMENT. The Colony of Connecticut first settled in 1638, consisted originally of two distinct jurisdictions, independent of each other, Connecticut and New Haven. Being without the limits of Massachusetts, and too small to attract the attention of the English government, they were left to mark

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out for themselves a system of civil policy, such as in their opinion was adapted to their condition. Being strict puritans, and mistaking the Jewish theocracy, as contained in the books of Moses, as intended for other nations, they bottomed their early codes upon it; but not being at all designed or adapted to general use, as a system of civil government, the colonists in undertaking to modify it, produced a code, which under the name of the blue laws of Connecticut, has been the subject of much animadversion.

In 1662, the two colonies at their own request, and by a previous mutual agreement, were united under a charter from Charles the Second, containing a form of government by which the affairs of the colony and state have been conducted through the war of the revolution, and down to the year 1818. One of the articles of the compact provided that the general assembly should hold their sessions alternately at Hartford and New Haven; and this provision was incorporated into the constitution of the state. The granting of this charter was the first official notice taken of the colony by the English government.

CONSTITUTION. In 1818, the people of the state formed a written constitution, containing a form of government bottomed upon the principles of their charter, and similar in most of its provisions with those which had previously been adopted by other states. It contains a bill of rights, consisting of twenty-one articles, the object of which is to protect the citizens from the oppression of those whom they should select to manage their affairs. It professes to divide the powers of government into three distinct departments, legislative, executive and judicial, and to assign each to a separate magistracy. The legislative department consists of two branches, each chosen annually. The governor and lieutenant governor are also chosen annually, and a majority of the whole number of votes polled is necessary for a choice. If no choice is made by the people, the legislature are required to choose one of the two highest in number of votes.

APPOINTING POWER. In the distribution of powers to the several departments, the power of appointment is reserved to the legislative body. In this important particular, the constitutions of several states vest the appointing power in relation to such of the principal officers of the government as are not chosen by the people, in the governor, assisted by the senate, or by an executive council. In the others this power is vested in the legislature. This has given rise to an interesting political question—which is the most safe and proper depository of this power?

In favor of the principle adopted by some of the States, in conformity with that of the Federal constitution, it is urged that

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the responsibility is greater, and appointments are more likely to be judiciously made; that the governor, being sworn to see the laws faithfully executed, ought to have the appointment of the subordinate officers who are to be entrusted with their execution; that withholding from him this power, deemed an essential prerogative of the supreme executive authority, lessens its dignity, removes all accountability, and leaves nothing but the shadow of an executive department; that this power vested in a numerous legislative body, cannot be exercised with that caution necessary for its faithful discharge; that such bodies, from the nature of their construction, are subject to popular influence and intrigue; that the exercise of this power lessens their dignity, and diverts their attention from the appropriate duties of legislation; and that it renders the constitution inconsistent with itself, for while it professes to separate the legislative and executive departments, and to assign to each a separate magistracy, it consolidates both powers in the legislative body.

The reasons assigned for vesting this power in the legislature, are, that it is too important to be trusted to a single person; and that it savors too much of a monarchy, or an oppressive aristocracy. The more operative reason may be that the framers of the state constitutions expected to be legislators under them, and were unwilling to part with so important a prerogative.

The governor of Connecticut has a nominal veto upon the proceedings of the legislature. All acts are to be presented to him for his approbation and signature; if he disapproves, he is to return the bill to the house where it originated, with his reasons, and if the bill is passed on reconsideration, by simple majorities of both houses, it becomes a law, notwithstanding the governor's objections.

YALE COLLEGE. Yale college, one of the most distinguished literary institutions, and the one having the greatest number of students of any in the United States, is located in New Haven. It has ten principal buildings, pleasantly situated west of the public square, with a spacious yard in front. It was originally established in Saybrook, in 1700, and removed to New Haven in 1716. It derives its name from Elihu Yale, of London, a native of New Haven, and governor of the English East India company, who was one of its principal benefactors. Its original design was to educate young men for the ministry, and for this purpose was placed under the government of a corporation consisting of twelve clergymen of the Congregational order, with power to fill vacancies in their own body. It continued in this condition, with very limited means, until about the year 1800, when the legislature made a considerable grant to the institution, and with the consent of the corporation, added to its body the governor, lieutenant governor, and six senior assistants.

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Contributions have lately been made by 618 individuals, principally alumni of the college, to the amount of $107,000, which has placed its funds on respectable footing. Number of instructors are thirty-two, and number of students four hundred and thirty-eight. The whole number educated from 1700 to 1842 inclusive, is 5093, of whom 1527, or more than one quarter, have been clergymen. The annual expenses, including instruction, room, and board, usually do not exceed $113, or $452 for the whole term of four years. Estimating the other expenses,

Yale College.

including clothing, fuel, and contingencies, at two thirds of that sum, makes an aggregate of $752 for the necessary expenses of an education at Yale college.

There is likewise a medical school connected with the college, having six professors and forty-five students. There is also a theological seminary and a law school in the city. New Haven is also celebrated for the number and excellence of its boarding schools and smaller seminaries. The average number of youth of both sexes, from abroad, residing at New Haven for the purposes of education, is computed at one thousand.

OTHER COLLEGES. The other public literary institutions are Washington college, established at Hartford in 1826. This is an Episcopal college; it has nine instructors, and eighty students. And the Wesleyan university, a Methodist institution, established at Middletown in 1831. It has nine instructors, and one hundred and thirty-three students.

These institutions are under the superintendence of their respective denominations, they are strictly literary, and open to the reception of all students. They have received the patronage of the legislature, and are in a progressive and prosperous state.

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The number of banks in Connecticut is thirty-one; capital stock, $8,519,368.

DEAF AND DUMB ASYLUM. There is established at Hartford an important institution, originating in private charity, for the instruction of the deaf and dumb. Until the establishment of this Asylum, their education had been neglected, being left only to such imperfect communication, confined to sensible objects, and carried on by signs, as those immediately connected with them were disposed to afford. In this institution they have been instructed to read and write, and in the use of figures, and enabled to comprehend intellectual objects. This institution has received considerable aid from the state and general governments, and has been the parent of several others, and will probably lead to such provision as will furnish the whole of this unfortunate class with suitable instruction.

SCHOOL FUND. The state has a fund appropriated exclusively to the support of common schools, the capital of which amounts to about two millions of dollars. It was obtained by the sale of what is called the western reserve. The charter of Connecticut extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, covering a considerable portion of what now constitutes the states of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. The right of the state to any territory beyond what now constitutes its western boundary, was always successfully controverted by New York and Pennsylvania, whenever it came in conflict with their possessions. In ceding to the United States its vacant territory, the eastern line of that cession was defined to be one hundred and fifty miles west of the western line of Pennsylvania, leaving to the state of Connecticut a territory of one hundred and fifty miles in length from east to west, and the breadth of the state from north to south, containing five and a half millions of acres, of what now constitutes the state of Ohio. The cession being accepted, Connecticut relinquished her claim to all intermediate territory, and appropriated five hundred thousand acres on the western border of the reservation, to compensate those of her citizens who had suffered by conflagrations of the enemy during the war of the revolution. These were denominated fire lands.

The residue, five millions of acres, was sold in the year 1795, for $1,200,000, and the avails appropriated to the support of common schools. The fund now consists in the bonds of individuals, secured by mortgage of double the value of the debt; of bank stock, each bank being obliged to receive as stock untransferrable, such portion of the monies of the school fund as the manager thinks proper to place in it, not exceeding a certain per cent. upon its other capital; and in lands which have been taken in satisfaction of debts when other property could

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not be obtained. The fund was first placed under the management of a board of three directors. It was soon found that such a board was much less competent to manage its affairs than a single individual; it was then placed under the sole direction of a skilful manager, with a competent salary, payable out of the fund, who devoted his whole time to the object. Under such direction, the principal has accumulated sixty per cent., and semi annual dividends have been made of all the collectible interest, to the school societies, in proportion to the number of children from four to sixteen years of age.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. The attention of the citizens of Connecticut was early directed to the improvement of their roads by means of turnpikes. Roads of this description amount to upwards of a thousand miles, intersecting the state in every direction, and though generally not productive to the stockholders, are of great public convenience.

The Farmington canal, extends from New Haven harbor to the line of Massachusetts at Southwick, where it joins the Hampshire and Hampden canal, extending the navigation to Connecticut river, at Northampton. The whole distance is seventy-eight miles. The canal is thirty-six feet wide at the surface of the water, and has a depth of four feet of water. Distance to Southwick, fifty-eight miles; lockage, 218 feet. The basin at New Haven contains twenty acres. The canal was begun in 1825, and has cost six hundred thousand dollars; averaging about ten thousand dollars per mile.

The rail roads in Connecticut are the Norwich and Worcester, length, 58 miles; the New Haven and Hartford, length 36 miles; and the Housatonic, from Bridgeport to New Milford, a distance of 35 miles.

New Haven Park and Churches.

The citizens of Connecticut are not engaged in the European trade. A considerable commerce is had with the West Indies,

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principally from New Haven, consisting of the export of live stock and provisions, and the import of the productions of the sugar cane and coffee tree. The whale fishery is carried on from New London and Stonington.

Manufactories in cotton and woollen are established to a considerable extent, principally on the waters of the Quinnebaug and Shetucket; and iron foundries in the western section of the state.

The most considerable cities are Hartford and New Haven; the former pleasantly situated on the west bank of the Connecticut river, at the head of sloop navigation, fifty miles from its mouth; population, 12,793. The latter at the head of a bay extending four miles up from Long Island Sound; population, 14,390. The city is laid out in squares; the centre one is reserved for public purposes; one half for a walk, and the other for public buildings.

NEW YORK. The state of New York extends from the Atlantic ocean to the borders of Canada on lake Champlain, three hundred miles; and from Niagara river to the west line of the state of Massachusetts, three hundred and forty miles; containing an area of forty-five thousand square miles; and a population of 2,428,921, averaging fifty-four to the square mile. The real estate estimated in the year 1841, for the purpose of taxation, amounted to $531,987,886; and the personal estate, to $123,311,644. Number of militia in 1840, 162,172.

ITS WESTERN SECTION. The country west of Albany is a high, rich, table land; its summit being seven hundred feet above the level of tide water at Albany; from this table, the waters flow northerly into the St. Lawrence, southerly into the gulf of Mexico, by means of the Alleghany river, a branch of the Ohio; into the Chesapeake bay by the Susquehanna; into the Delaware bay by the Delaware river; and into New York bay by the Hudson. This country, during the revolutionary war, and for some years after, was inhabited by the Six Nations of Indians, the most powerful and warlike of any in the northern section of the United States. They were under British influence, and carried on a destructive warfare against the frontiers of New York and Pennsylvania. It then constituted one county, called Tryon, embracing only a few white inhabitants, principally settled on the flats of the Mohawk river.

The whole country, with the exception of some reservations, has been obtained after the American mode of purchasing Indian titles, and now contains nearly a million of inhabitants. The great body of these tribes have migrated to the west, or become extinct. The rights of those remaining on the reservations have for the most part been respected. On a question before the supreme court of New York relating to these Indian

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for acts done on the reservations, the court held jurisdiction, on the ground that the Indians, from their reduced number and condition, had ceased to be a political community.

On the northern section of this territory, and near lake Ontario, are the Onondaga salt springs, at which a million and a half bushels of salt are annually made by evaporation and by artificial heat. They are owned by the state, and rented with the privilege of getting fuel from the state lands reserved for that purpose, at a certain rate per bushel. There appears to be no limit to their productiveness but the want of fuel. Evaporation by natural means has lately been resorted to with success. A communication with the springs is opened to the Erie canal, by means of a side cut, which gives to this salt a greatly extended market. In the year 1841, 3,340,769 bushels were inspected.

ITS CONSTITUTION. The constitution, formed in 1821, provides, that there shall be a house of representatives chosen annually by counties, and a senate chosen once in four years, and classed in such a manner that one fourth may be annually renewed; for the choice of senators, the state is divided into eight senatorial districts, to consist of contiguous counties, and as nearly equal as may be, each of which are to select four senators. The governor is elected biennially, and has assigned to him the appropriate duty of appointments, with the advice and consent of the senate. He has a qualified negative upon the acts of the legislature. Judges hold their offices during good behavior, but not beyond the age of sixty. This restriction operates to deprive the state of the services of its judges between the ages of sixty and seventy, when, as a general rule, they are best qualified to discharge judicial duties.

The political year commences on the first of January, and the legislature meets on the first Tuesday. The constitution guards against executive influence on the legislature, and intriguing for office among its members, by a provision, that "no member of the legislature shall receive any civil appointment from the governor and senate, or from the legislature, during the term for which he shall have been elected." It also guards against the influence of the clergy in civil affairs, by disfranchising the members of that profession. The article is in the following terms: "whereas the ministers of the gospel are, by their profession, dedicated to the service of God, and the care of souls, and ought not to be diverted from the great duties of their functions; therefore, no minister of the gospel, or priest of any denomination whatsoever, shall, at any time hereafter, under any pretence or description whatever, be eligible to, or capable of holding any civil or military office within this state."

The assent of two thirds of the members elected to each branch of the legislature, is requisite to every bill appropriating public money for local or private purposes, or for creating, alter-

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ing, or renewing, any corporation. The tolls on the Erie and Champlain canals, the duties on the manufacture of salt, and certain other items of revenue, are inviolably pledged for the payment of the canal debt, and until that is extinguished, they cannot be diminished. The constitution prohibits the legislature from disposing of their canal property, or the salt springs, and from granting lotteries.

SAFETY FUND BANKS. The legislature of New York have adopted a new principle in relation to banks. By an act of 1829, every bank thereafter to be chartered or renewed, is required to contribute annually one half of one per cent. on its capital, to constitute what is called a mutual safety fund, the object of which is to provide for the payment of the debts of such of them as should become insolvent. These banks and the fund are placed under the supervision of commissioners appointed by the state, to whom they are to make annual reports of their condition.

The principle of making one corporation or joint stock company accountable for the debts of another with whom it has no connection, and over whose conduct it has no control, is a novel experiment in legislation. It is expected that the safety fund banks will be compensated for this contribution, in the greater credit and consequent more extensive circulation of their bills. The number of banks subject to this regulation is ninety. Whole number of banks in the state, ninety-six. Capital, $36,801,4€0.

In 1838 a law was passed, which is usually called the "General Banking Law," which authorizes any person or association who deposit with the comptroller of the State, United States stocks, or the stocks of any State, to issue bills, (countersigned and registered by the comptroller,) equal in amount to the stocks deposited, such stocks to be equal to New York state stock, bearing five per cent. per annum.

Or if preferred, one half the issue of bills can be based upon bonds and mortgages, bearing at least six per cent. interest, upon real estate in the State of New York, provided such mortgages be only on improved, productive, unincumbered lands, worth independently of any buildings thereon, at least double the amount for which they are mortgaged.

This currency, chiefly in consequence of the depreciation in stocks, has not proved as valuable as the friends of the law had hoped.

Imprisonment for debt, as it respects citizens of the State, has been abolished; and citizens of other States, after a short residence, may be exonerated by a process of insolvency, unless proved guilty of fraud in contracting debts, or in the disposition of their property to avoid payment.

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EDUCATION.

EDUCATION. Great exertions have been made by the legislature to extend the benefits of education to all classes. The appropriations which have been made for this purpose have been frequent and liberal. There are six colleges in the State; Columbia, at the city of New York, founded in 1754. Number of students, one hundred and thirty-nine. Union, at Schenectady, founded in 1795. Students, two hundred and eighty. Hamilton, at Clinton, founded in 1812. Students, seventy four. The Hamilton Literary and Theological College, at Hamilton. founded in 1819. Students. seventy-four. Geneva, founded at Geneva, in 1823. Number of students, sixty-four. And the University of New York, founded in the city in 1831. Number of students, one hundred and thirty five. The last is projected on the broad scale of European universities, and is governed by a council of thirty-two members, together with the mayor and four of the common council of the city. It depends on private subscription for funds.

Each town is divided into a suitable number of school districts, and each district is required by law to provide itself with a school house, furniture and fuel. There is an annual appropriation to these districts from the school fund, according to the number of scholars from five to sixteen years of age, and the towns are required to raise by a tax a sum equal to that received from the fund. There are 10,769 school districts, and 572,995 children who receive instruction. The amount of expense incurred by the public and individuals annually, for the support of common schools, is estimated at more than a million of dollars.

There are two institutions for the instruction of the deaf and dumb; one in the city of New York, and one at Canajoharie.

Meteorological reports are annually made from the principal academies, from which it is ascertained that for the five years immediately preceding 1831, the mean temperature of the climate in twenty different places was 48° Fahrenheit, and that the mean depth of rain and snow water which fell annually at the same time and places, was thirty-eight inches.

The clergy are generally supported by the voluntary contributions of their respective congregations.

The average annual salaries of the clergy are estimated at $500.

The first newspaper printed in the state, was in 1725. At the census of 1790, New York was the fifth state in the Union as to numbers, containing 340,120 inhabitants, being about the twelfth part of the whole. At the enumeration of 1830, its numbers had increased five fold, containing about the fifth part of the whole free inhabitants of the United States, and considerably more than any other state. In 1835, the population was 2,174,517. In 1840, 2,428,921.

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ERIE CANAL. The idea of connecting the waters bordering on the west of the state, with the navigable waters of the Hudson at Albany, was early entertained. Public opinion vibrated for some time between a canal terminating at the eastern extremity of lake Ontario, and one extending to lake Erie. The former would be but about half the distance, and require but half the expense, but the superior advantages of the latter soon led to a decision in its favor.

The Erie canal owes its origin to the powerful and persevering exertions of De Witt Clinton. It was thought by many to be visionary, and far beyond the means of the state to accomplish, and by way of derision it was called Clinton's big ditch. The first ground was broken, July 4th, 1817. The first boat passed from lake Erie to the Hudson, in October, 1825. Its length is 363 miles; breadth at the surface of the water, forty feet, at the bottom, twenty-eight; depth of water, four feet; 668 feet of rise and fall, by 84 locks, and cost seven millions of dollars. Amount of tolls collected in 1840, 1,617,246. The most noted towns on the Erie canal are Utica, Rochester, and Buffalo, all celebrated for their enterprize and rapid growth.

Champlain canal was commenced the same year, and under the same board of directors, connecting the waters of lake Champlain with those of the Hudson and the western lakes. It commences at Whitehall, and enters the Mohawk river at Waterford, opposite the Erie canal. Length, 64 miles, of the same dimensions as the Erie canal; rise and fall 188 feet by 21 locks. Cost, $1,179,871.

OSWEGO CANAL, &c. Oswego canal connects the Erie canal with lake Ontario at Oswego. Length, 38 miles; descent to the lake, 123 feet, by 14 locks. Cost, $565,437.

Cayuga and Seneca canal extends from Geneva on the Seneca lake to the Erie canal at Montezuma, distance 20 miles; descent 73 feet, by 11 locks. Cost $236,804.

Chemung canal extends from the head waters of Seneca lake to the Tioga river, a distance of 23 miles; the Crooked lake canal is eight miles long, and connects the waters of the Crooked and Seneca lakes.

The Chenango canal extends from the city of Utica to Bingampton, where it unites with the Susquehanna river; its length is 97 miles; it was commenced in 1833, completed in 1837, and cost $2,270,605. These canals have been constructed at the expense of the state, and are under the administration of its government.

The most important canal undertaken by a private company, is the Delaware and Hudson, commencing at the head of tide water on the Rondout creek, three miles from the Hudson, and terminating at Honesville, in Pennsylvania, opposite the mouth of Lackawaxen river; length, 83 miles in New York and 25 in

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Pennsylvania; begun in July, 1825, and completed in October, 1828. Its object is to open a communication with the coal mines in Luzerne county, for which purpose a rail road has been constructed from the western termination of the canal to mount Carbon. The Black river canal extends from Rome to Carthage, 85 miles. The Genesee valley, from Rochester to Olean, 119 miles. The Dansville branch, from Mount Morris to Dansville, 11 miles.

RAIL ROADS. The Mohawk and Hudson rail road extends from Albany to Schenectady, a distance of sixteen miles, and affords a communication between the tide water of the Hudson, and the Erie canal. It was commenced in 1830, and cost $600,000. The Saratoga and Schenectady rail road is a continuation of this by another company, to the Saratoga Springs; length, twenty miles; cost, $150,000.

The Ithaca and Owego rail road extends from Ithaca on the Cayuga lake, to Owego, on the Susquehanna, twenty-nine miles. Cost, $300,000.

The Rensselaer and Saratoga rail road runs from Troy to the Ballston Spa, twenty-four and a half miles. Cost, $[illegible]00,000.

The Long Island rail road, from Brooklyn to Hicksville, twenty-seven miles. The Harlem, from New York to Harlem, eight miles. The Hudson and Berkshire, from Hudson to West Stockbridge, thirty-three miles. The Catskill and Canajoharie, seventy-eight miles. The Utica and Schenectady, seventy-seven miles. The Syracuse and Utica, fifty-three miles. The Syracuse and Auburn, twenty-six miles. The Auburn and Rochester, eighty miles. The Tonawanda, from Rochester to Attica, forty-five miles. The Buffalo and Niagara Falls, twenty-three miles. The Lockport and Niagara Falls, twenty miles.

A company has been incorporated to construct a rail road from the Hudson, near the city of New York, through the southern tier of counties in the State, to lake Erie, with a capital of ten millions; a second, with a capital of three millions, for one between the cities of New York and Albany, on the east bank of the Hudson; and a third from Troy to the line of Vermont in the direction of Bennington. A considerable number of rail roads have been incorporated in this state. It is expected by their advocates that they will in a great measure supersede the further prosecution of canals, and very much reduce the business of such as are already made, where they come in competition. Nothing impedes motion on a horizontal plane, but the friction between the moving bodies and the surface on which it is moved. Hence the desiderata for locomotion, are a smooth and horizontal surface, and a hard and polished surface of the moving body at the points of contact. The friction of the moving body on such a surface is but little increased by its velocity; hence, a body possessed within itself of the moving force,

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can be carried forward with any speed which its directors choose to give it, with but little increase of the moving power. On these principles rail roads are constructed, and transportation effected on them, by means of steam, to a great extent, and with a velocity unknown to any other mode of conveyance. The subject is in a state of rapid improvement, and it can hardly now be estimated to what extent the ingenuity and enterprize of man will carry it.

The great object of the internal improvements in the western section of the state, is to bring the produce of the counties bordering on the lakes, and rivers communicating with them, to the market of its commercial metropolis. This object is put at hazard by British enterprise in Upper Canada, producing the Welland and Rideau canals, by which an uninterrupted sloop navigation is effected from the shores of Michigan to the Atlantic ocean, by Montreal and Quebec; their government at the same time aided the object, by admitting these productions to pass from the United States into Canada, and from thence to the West Indies and Europe, free of duty. By the Erie canal, the same productions require three shipments and freights to reach New York; one at the port nearest their growth, and one at each end of the canal; and when transported to foreign markets, are subject to a heavy impost. The merchant then, with his capital, whose object is the shipment of these productions to foreign ports, may always be found a resident in the Canadas. These circumstances have attracted the attention of the enterprising citizens of the western section of the state, and suggested the plan of a ship canal from lake Ontario, near Oswego, to the Hudson, at Albany.

NEW YORK CITY. The city of New York at the southern extremity of the state, in latitude 40° 42′, is the commercial capital of the United States. It stands at the head of the bay on Manhatten island, formed by the junction of the Hudson and East rivers, and a small stream issuing from the Hudson and running across the point to the East river. The island is fifteen miles in length from north to south, and its average breadth is one and a half miles, containing the city and county of New York, and containing 312,710 inhabitants. The bay of New York is a large and beautiful sheet of water spreading out before the city, and extending sixteen miles to the narrows between Sandy Hook and Long Island. It embosoms several fertile and pleasant islands, of which Staten Island is the principal. The bay is sufficiently large to accommodate a thousand ships, and has on its shallows, twenty-five feet of water. A beautiful view of this bay may be obtained from the battery, a spot of ground on the water side, reserved for the accommodation of the public, and carefully kept in order, by the city authorities. Castle Garden on the battery was once a fort, but

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View of New York City.

being no longer used as such, has been purchased by private individuals, and in the summer season has been opened as a promenade, and for the purpose of exhibiting fire works and other amusements.

Castle Garden, and Battery, New-York.

The revenue collected at the New York custom house, is more than half of what is collected in the United States.

No city in the United States, and few in the world, possess greater advantages for commerce. The great line of canals communicating with the Hudson, concentrates the produce of

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an immense and fertile region in its bosom. To this emporium, the merchants from the shores of the Atlantic, the confines of the lakes, and the banks of the Mississippi, resort to dispose of their produce, and obtain supplies. Here, also, travellers congregate as the place of departure to every part of the world, attracted by the facilities afforded them of sailing at stated periods. Regular packets sail four times a month to Liverpool, twice to London, and thrice to Havre. To every port of any importance in the United States, regular lines, sailing at stated times, may be relied on.

THE GREAT FIRE. On the night of Wednesday, the 16th of December, 1835, the city of New York was visited by the most destructive conflagration known in this country. The fire broke out about nine o'clock, in Merchant street, in the triangular block formed by Wall, William, and Pearl streets. The weather was so intensely cold that the engines could not be worked with any degree of efficacy, and the wind blowing strongly, caused the flames to spread with fearful rapidity. It became evident that the fire could not be arrested unless by blowing up buildings; but as the law prevented powder from being kept in large quantities in the city, it was necessary to send to the Navy Yard at Brooklyn for an adequate supply; this was at length obtained, and was the principal means of subduing the devastating element. The fire raged for eight hours with great violence, and fifteen hours elapsed before it was fairly got under in one or two places.

Four hundred and thirty buildings were destroyed, including the Exchange in Wall street; and the whole amount of property destroyed, was estimated at from seventeen to twenty millions of dollars.

THE CROTON AQUEDUCT. The greatest work of internal improvement connected with the city of New York, and one of the greatest in the world, of its kind, is the Croton aqueduct; its object is to afford the immense population congregated in that city a constant supply of pure and wholesome water; the Croton river was considered the nearest practicable point from whence to obtain this indispensable element, and the building of the aqueduct determined on. Its length from the Croton dam to the distributing reservoir is 40½ miles; the receiving reservoir contains an area of thirty-five acres; the distributing reservoir is three miles above the City Hall, it contains an area of more than four acres, and is capable of holding twenty millions imperial gallons.

The great Croton reservoir, or as it is often called, the Croton lake, covers about four hundred acres of land, and is available as a reservoir for five hundred millions of imperial gallons of water, above the level that would allow the aqueduct to dis-

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charge thirty-five millions gallons per day. The supply of the Croton from its daily flow aided by this reservoir is estimated at thirty-five millions of gallons. The dam sets back the water in the river about five miles, and has rendered necessary the construction of several new roads and bridges.

There are on the line of the aqueduct sixteen tunnels of various lengths; twenty-five streams cross the line of the aqueduct in Westchester county.

To pass the streams that intersect the line, and the land floods, one hundred and fourteen culverts have been constructed under the aqueduct. There are thirty-three ventilators to give a free circulation of air; the aqueduct bridge at Sing Sing is eighty-eight feet span and thirty-three feet rise, the Harlem River Bridge now in course of completion is fourteen hundred and fifty feet in length.

The introduction of the Croton water in New York was celebrated on the 14th of October, 1842, by a grand military and civil procession, which formed one of the most imposing displays ever witnessed in that city.

The estimated expense of the aqueduct and bridges, exceeds twelve millions of dollars.

The city was taken possession of by the British, on the 14th of September, 1776, and retained by them as their principal station until the 24th of November, 1783, and was their last military post on the Atlantic. The first enumeration of its inhabitants, on the return of peace, gave twenty thousand. Its increase to the present time exceeds fifteen fold. On the 4th of December, 1783, at Francis' Hotel in this city, General Washington took his final leave of his officers of the army, addressing them in the following terms: "with a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take leave of you, devoutly wishing that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy as your former have been glorious and honorable." On the 30th of April, 1789, he was here inaugurated president of the United States, and Congress at the same time commenced its operations under the constitution.

Albany, the seat of government, is pleasantly situated on the west bank of the Hudson river, one hundred and fifty miles north of the city of New York, and near the head of tide water and sloop navigation. It is also near the junction of the Erie and Champlain canals; and the place where the produce of the west and north must be trans-shipped for the Atlantic markets, and the return merchandize placed on board of the canal boats. These circumstances render Albany and its vicinity a place of great and increasing business. Its population is 33,721. Troy is a flourishing town on the Hudson river six miles north of Albany; its population is 19,334, and has increased more in the last ten years than that of Albany.

Thirty miles north of Albany are the Saratoga springs, cele-

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brated for their medicinal virtues. The Congress spring is the most noted. Its waters in great quantities are bottled and sent into various parts of the Union. It is a place of great resort

View of Albany.

during the summer season, for invalids and fashionables. Few visit them without improving their health and spirits. Steam boats in a few hours, carry passengers from New York to Albany, from whence rail road cars, with increased speed, convey

Congress Hall, Saratoga.

them to the springs, where they find excellent accommodations, and company in every variety. The town of Saratoga is memorable as being the place where the first British army under General Burgoyne, consisting of six thousand men, surrendered to General Gates, October 17th, 1777.

The most important river in the eastern section of the state, is the Hudson. It rises in the mountainous country, near lake Champlain, and is joined by the Mohawk from the west at

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Waterford; from whence it bears on its waters the produce of the north and the west, to the city of New York. In passing

Palisadoes, Hudson River.

through the Highlands, which rise abruptly fifteen hundred feet from the river, it presents a scenery highly picturesque.

A number of thriving towns are pleasantly situated on the river between New York and Albany; among which are Newburg, Poughkeepsie, Catskill, and Hudson.

AARON BURR. New York was, for a considerable period, the principal theatre of the political schemes of Aaron Burr. He began his career in the city with high prospects; few persons exceeded him in talents, and none in a total want of political integrity. He was early placed by the legislature of the state in the senate of the United States, where he distinguished himself as the champion of opposition to federalism. In selecting candidates for the presidency of 1801, the parties were so nearly balanced, that a perfect union on their respective candidates was deemed necessary. The object of the republicans was to elect Mr. Jefferson; and to secure the co-operation of New York, it was necessary to take Burr as his second. The constitution then required the electoral votes to be given indiscriminately, for two candidates, for president and vice president, without designating the office designed for each. Jefferson and Burr had an equal and the highest vote, which devolved the duty on the house of representatives of designating one of the two for the presidency. Jefferson was the favorite of the republicans. Few persons of either party wished Burr to be president. He was able by intrigue to hold the choice of the house of representatives in check until the thirty-fifth ballot, which eventuated in giving the first office to Mr. Jefferson, and the second to Mr. Burr.

It soon became evident that Burr's political career in relation

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to the general government, must terminate with his vice presidency; and thereupon he caused himself to be set up for the office of governor of the state of New York. Mr. Hamilton, a distinguished federalist, who had retired from public life, and was then an eminent counsellor in the city, expressed an opinion in a private letter to a friend, that Burr was an unsafe person to be trusted with the office to which he was aspiring. This letter, contrary to the wishes, and without any agency of its author, found its way into a newspaper, and was made the occasion of a challenge from Burr to Hamilton, eventuating in the death of the latter. Burr absented himself from public view, for a short time. A bill of indictment was found against him, by a grand jury in the state of New Jersey, for the murder; it having taken place at Hoboken, in that state. This bill has slept on the files of that court to the present time. At the next session of Congress, he appeared in the chair of the senate, and presided over the deliberations in the trial of the impeachment of Judge Chase, one of the associate justices of the supreme court of the United States. The only point on which federalists and republicans ever united, was in a cordial hatred to Aaron Burr. His ambition by no means terminated with his office.

He calculated that the federalists and the disappointed expectants of office under Mr. Jefferson, would form a majority, by which he could overturn the government and place himself at the head of the nation. He found few or no advocates of this scheme. His next was to separate the valley of the Mississippi from the Atlantic states, and form an independent empire, of which he should be head, and New Orleans the capital. For this project he found a number of advocates, and was able to raise considerable funds. Subordinate, and as a kind of a cloak for his military preparations, and as a final resort, was the project of joining the disaffected in Mexico, and wresting that province from Spain. He had strong hopes of corrupting general Wilkinson, commander of the United States troops, and engaging him and the army in his views. He failed, also in this project; his enlistments and preparations progressed slowly. Mr. Jefferson closely watched his proceedings, and caused him to be arrested and examined before a court in Kentucky, where he was discharged for want of proof. A similar proceeding terminated in the same manner before a court in the Mississippi territory. Burr fled into the wilderness, and was again arrested in the neighborhood of Fort Stoddard, and conducted under a military escort to Richmond, where he was tried in the summer of 1807, on a charge of high treason, before chief justice Marshall. The treason specified in the indictment was, levying war against the United States by assembling a military force at Blannerhassett's island in the Ohio river, nearly opposite Marietta. Burr was several hundred miles distant from that place at the

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time the treason was alleged to have been committed, collecting materials for some of his enterprizes, but without any definite object. After several months spent in the trial, judge Marshall decided that Burr could not be criminally chargeable with the conduct of other persons, until the principals had been convicted, and excluded the testimony relied upon for the support of the prosecution. The jury returned a verdict that he was not proved guilty by any testimony before them. He was then bound over for trial for a misdemeanor before a court in Ohio; this prosecution was abandoned, and all further criminal process against him ceased. After this career, he returned to what he called "the dull pursuits of civil life," in the practice of law in the city of New York. He died on the 14th of September, 1836, in the eighty-first year of his age.

NEW JERSEY. New Jersey is a peninsula between the waters of New York bay and the Hudson river on the east, and Delaware bay and river on the west; one hundred and sixty three miles in length, and fifty in breadth. It contains seven thousand five hundred square miles, and 373,306 inhabitants; fifty to the square mile. Number of militia, thirty-nine thousand one hundred and seventy-one. Its constitution was formed July 2d, 1776, while it was a province of Great Britain. It provides that the government of the province shall be vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. The council and assembly to be chosen annually by the people, and the governor and judges, by the council and assembly in joint meeting. The governor to hold his office one year, and the judges seven. The governor has also the powers of a chancellor.

EDUCATION. Princeton college is a flourishing institution, founded in 1746, under the government of a board of twenty-three trustees, of whom the governor for the time being is president. One half the members must be clergymen; number of students, two hundred and seven. A theological seminary for the education of ministers for the presbyterian church, was established at Princeton in 1812, having twelve instructors, and one hundred and thirteen students. Rutger's college was established at New Brunswick in 1770. It has eleven instructors, and eighty-two students.

Until a recent period, common school education has been greatly neglected in New Jersey. At a public meeting of the friends of education, in 1828, a committee was appointed to prepare and publish information relating to schools, and the condition of the people as to common education. That committee reported eleven thousand seven hundred and forty-two children entirely destitute of instruction, and fifteen thousand adults who are unable to read; and that in many towns more than one half of the children never attended any school. The agent employ-

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ed by the American Bible society in distributing Bibles, reported that in eighteen families which he visited, none of the members could read. These facts collected and published, awakened the attention of the people to this subject.

In 1829, a law was passed appropriating $20,000 in small sums, to such towns as would raise another sum equal to that appropriated to them for the support of schools. A permanent school fund has also been provided. The amount of the school fund in 1841, exceeded $336,000. There are 1400 school districts in the state. The census of 1840, reports 6,385 white persons over twenty years of age, unable to read or write. The recent exertions of the people of New Jersy in behalf of the cause of education are highly commendable.

CANALS AND RAIL ROADS. New Jersey being the great thoroughfare between New York and Philadelphia, much exertion has been made to facilitate the intercourse between these capitals. A canal for sloop navigation, of seventy feet width and seven feet depth of water, from the Raritan near New Brunswick to the Delaware at Trenton, has been completed; length forty-three miles; estimated cost $2,500,000. This canal is owned by the Camden and Amboy rail road company, who have made a rail road from Amboy to Camden, opposite Philadelphia, a distance of sixty miles, bringing the cities of New York and Philadelphia with the present speed within seven hours of each other. The whole distance both by land and water is run by steam; to what extent the speed may be increased remains yet to be ascertained. Several other rail roads are projected to facilitate the intercourse between different parts of the state, and with their principal marts, the cities of New York and Philadelphia. The Morris canal, extending from Jersey city, a village opposite New York, to Delaware river at Easton, where it unites with the Lehigh canal, is an enterprize of the citizens of New York, designed to facilitate the transportation of coal directly from the mines to that city. Its length is one hundred miles; rise and fall one thousand six hundred and fifty seven feet, two hundred and twenty-three of which are overcome by twenty-four locks, and the residue by twenty-three inclined planes. Commenced in 1825; estimated cost $1,000,000. The Paterson and Hudson rail road, from Jersey city to Paterson, is sixteen miles; the Camden and Woodbury, nine miles; the New Jersey, from Jersey city to Brunswick, is thirty-four miles; the Trenton and New Brunswick, twenty-seven miles; the Morris and Essex, from Newark to Morristown, is twenty-two miles; and the Elizabethport and Somerville, is twenty-five miles.

CHIEF TOWNS. This state, though bordering upon navigable water three hundred miles, has no port, and no large cities.

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It depends almost wholly on New York and Philadelphia for its foreign commerce. It has many flourishing towns. Trenton, on the Delaware, is the seat of government. Population 4,021. Princeton, the seat of the college and of the theological seminary, is a flourishing and pleasant town. Population 3,055.

College of New Jersey, at Princeton.

These are noted in the history of the war of the revolution, as being the scenes of two splendid achievements of general Washington, which dissipated the desponding fears of the country, and changed the aspect of the war.

PATERSON. Paterson is a flourishing manufacturing town at the falls of Passaic river. There are nineteen cotton factories in the place, employing about fifteen hundred men; the annual value of manufactured articles is $696,842. The whole amount of capital invested in the manufacture of cotton and wool, is $926,000. There are two manufactories of paper; value of their manufactures, $175,000; eighty three men employed, and $82,000 invested. The population of Paterson is 7,958.

NEWARK. Newark is the largest town in the state, and distinguished for its manufacturing enterprise. Its reputation in the building of carriages is established throughout the Union; the annual value of the carriages and wagons made there, is stated in the census for 1840, at $604,900, giving employment to 483 men, and to an invested capital of $218,700. There are thirty-two manufactories of leather, saddleries, &c.; the value of manufactured articles in leather, tanneries, saddleries, &c., is $706,246; capital employed, $285,951. The value of hats and caps manufactured, is $476,648, giving employment to 383 per-

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sons. The population of this flourishing town is 17,303, in 1830 it was 12,500

The business of the citizens of New Jersey is chiefly agricultural, supplying to a considerable extent, the markets of New York and Philadelphia with provisions and fruit. The soil is of every variety, from the richest and most productive, to barren plains.

PENNSYLVANIA. Pennsylvania extends from the tide waters of the Delaware, thirty miles below Philadelphia, to lake Erie, between the parallels of 39° 43′, and 42° north latitude. Its greatest length from Bristol, its extreme eastern point on the Delaware, to Virginia, is three hundred and fifteen miles, and breadth, one hundred and seventy six, containing forty-seven thousand square miles, and 1,724,033 inhabitants, being thirty-six to a square mile; number of militia according to the latest returns, two hundred and thirty-six thousand one hundred and seventy one.

The state prohibits the issuing or the circulation of bills of a less denomination than five dollars. The charter of the United States bank expired in March, 1836, and the legislature of the state of Pennsylvania, at their session in February of that year, incorporated a bank, giving it the same name, and allowing it the same capital as that of the national institution; the charter was signed by the governor on the 18th of February, 1836; its title is peculiar; it runs thus: "An act to repeal the state tax on real and personal property, and to continue and extend the improvements of the state, by rail roads and canals, and to charter a STATE BANK, to be called the 'United States Bank;'" for which the state received a bonus of $1,100,000. Also for several state bank charters, $190,000.

The charter provides, that in consideration of the privileges granted to the bank, and in lieu of all taxes on dividends, the corporation shall pay into the treasury of the commonwealth the sum of two millions of dollars; also, that whenever required by law, the bank shall advance on permanent loan, on interest, any sum or sums, not exceeding in the whole six millions of dollars, and for each sum of money so loaned, shall receive from the commonwealth a negotiable certificate of stock, reimbursable on the 3d of March, 1868; the bank is also bound, whenever required by law, to advance to the commonwealth as a temporary loan, any sum of money not exceeding one million of dollars, in any one year, at an interest of four per cent. per annum, reimbursable at the pleasure of the commonwealth, within twelve months from the date of the loan. The incorporation is further bound to pay to the treasurer, for the use of the commonwealth, $500,000 on the 3d of March, 1837; also $100,000 on the first Monday of June, 1837, and the like sums of $100,000 on each succeeding first Monday of June, for nineteen years thereafter,

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to be added to and paid over with the annual appropriation provided by the commonwealth for common school purposes. The bank is further bound to subscribe (if requested to do so by said companies, or either of them, within one year from the passage of the act) to a number of rail road, navigation and turnpike companies, the sums to be subscribed being specified by the charter. The bonus is distributed to a great variety of objects, chiefly internal improvements.

A majority of the senators were elected as anti bank men, and the course several of them took in voting for this institution, caused many severe remarks on their conduct.

Its management has proved unfortunate both to the stockholders and the public; its bills are not redeemed, and its stock has depreciated to a nominal price.

CONSTITUTION. On the separation of the colonies from Great Britain, Pennsylvania formed a temporary government, consisting of a president and council, and a legislative body composed of one house. This system, imperfect as it was, carried the state through the war. Its principal defect was the want of a senate, or second chamber, to prevent hasty legislation. This was afterwards altered, and the original plan greatly improved. In 1790, a constitution was formed, more on the model of that of the United States. In 1838 an amended constitution was agreed on by a convention and adopted by the people. The governor is elected by the people for the term of three years, but cannot be elected more than three terms in succession. He has the absolute power of appointment, not subject to the control of a senate or executive council. The constitution avoids the expense of a lieutenant governor, so much of a sinecure in other states, at the same time provides for the death or disqualification of the governor, by ordaining, that in such an event, the speaker of the senate shall discharge the duties of a governor until another is qualified. The representatives are chosen every third year, and classed in such a manner as that one third are renewed annually. Judges of the supreme court hold their office for fifteen years.

The constitution directs that the legislature shall, as soon as conveniently may be, provide by law for the establishment of schools throughout the state, in such manner that the poor may be taught gratis.

EDUCATION. The following are the number of colleges established in Pennsylvania, with the date of their foundations, and number of students in 1837:

University of Pennsylvania, founded in 1755, at Philadelphia; students, one hundred and eleven. It has real and personal estate, valued at one hundred and sixty thousand dollars, and an annual income of fifteen thousand. Dickinson college, at

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Carlisle, founded in 1833; students, one hundred and two. Jefferson college, at Canonsburg, founded in 1802; students, one hundred and forty-seven. Washington college, founded in 1806; students, seventy-six. Alleghany college, founded at Meadsville, in 1815; number of students, one hundred and twenty. Pennsylvania college, founded at Gettysburg, in 1832; number of students, seventy-six. Layfayette college, established at Easton in 1832, embraces, besides the ordinary branches, military tactics and civil engineering; number of students, one hundred fifty-four. Marshall college, founded at Mercersburg, in 1836; number of students, fifty-three.

Academies or high schools, designed for teaching the higher branches of English education, and classical literature, are established in the principal older counties of the state.

The powers given by the constitution to the legislature, in relation to common schools, were not exercised to any effect until 1809, when an act was passed for the education of the poor, gratis, making provision for gratuitous instruction for the children of such parents as were unable to provide for their education.

Notwithstanding the liberal provision under this law, a committee of the legislature in 1831. reported "that more than half the children of the commonwealth, between the ages of five and fifteen, have not the benefit of school education, and that a large portion of the adult population can neither read nor write; that in some places, the inhabitants of whole districts are growing up destitute of instruction, unacquainted with their duty as citizens, unfortified by the influence of religion, and left to become fit subjects for the wild spirit of party, that has so often shaken to the centre our social relations, or to be the perpetrators of crime, and the miserable inmates of our gaols and penitentiaries."

Since that period much attention has been paid to the subject of education, and liberal appropriations have been made by the legislature; the annual appropriation now is one dollar for each taxable inhabitant. The conditions on which the districts receive their portion of the appropriation, are, that they accept the school system, and assess a tax at least equal to their proportion to be received from the state. More than three quarters of the districts accept the system. In 1841, the number of scholars taught in the common schools, was 284,469.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. The subject of internal improvements early attracted the attention of the legislature and people of Pennsylvania. The first turnpike road was that between Lancaster and Philadelphia, a distance of sixty miles, commenced in 1792, and finished in 1794, at at expense of $465,000; $7,600 per mile. Since that period, upwards of two hundred turnpike companies have been authorized by law. Many of

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the roads have been made according to the original plan; others modified, and some abandoned. Few have proved profitable investments; but the citizens have experienced great benefit from the increased value of their lands and productions, and the economy of business.

Pennsylvania is divided into two great sections, the eastern and western, by the Alleghany mountains. The most important object of internal improvement, is to open a safe, easy, and cheap communication between these sections, and to facilitate transportation, so as to retain for Philadelphia a due portion of the trade of the immense regions of the west. A full description of the various plans of internal improvement, having this, as the principal, and other subordinate objects in view, would require a volume. A few only of the prominent ones will be noticed.

The most important line of communication between the east and the west, and one which the state has undertaken, commences with the Columbia rail road, on the Delaware, in the southern section of the city of Philadelphia, and runs through Lancaster to Columbia, on the Susquehanna, a distance of eighty-two miles; thence by canal navigation up the valley of the Susquehanna and Juniata rivers, to Holidaysburg, at the eastern base of the Alleghany, one hundred and seventy-two miles; thence by rail road across the mountains to Johnstown, thirty-seven miles, having an elevation of 1362 feet to be overcome by inclined planes and stationary engines. The highest point of elevation on the road, is 2332 feet above the tide water at Philadelphia. A space of eight rods in width, the entire length of the rail road, is reserved to the state, on the expectation that the trade of the valley of the Mississippi, and the lakes, will require additional tracks. A tunnel on the rail road perforates the mountain, sixty rods in length, and sixteen feet in width. From Johnstown to Pittsburg, one hundred and fourteen miles, by canal navigation. Whole distance on this route from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, three hundred and ninety-five miles; two hundred and seventy-six by water, and one hundred and nineteen by rail road.

From Pittsburg, another canal is projected to run in a northerly direction to the borough of Erie, on lake Erie, a distance of two hundred and thirteen miles. Various other branches connected with the main line, have been undertaken by the state, and are in different stages of progress.

RAIL ROADS. The opening of the coal mines in the interior of the eastern section of Pennsylvania, has given rise to a number of rail roads, canals, and slack water river navigation, undertaken by private companies. The main object of these improvements is the transportation of coal to Philadelphia; without them, the mines would be of no value. By the facilities which they afford, coal is brought to this market at such rates

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as to furnish much the cheapest fuel for the citizens, and an important article of exportation.

The earliest and most important private enterprize, the object of which was to bring coal to Philadelphia, was that of the Schuylkill canal and navigation company, incorporated in 1815.

This line of communication extends from Philadelphia to mount Carbon, by the way of Reading; whole distance one hundred and ten miles. The first distance, forty-five miles, is by slack water navigation on the Schuylkill, effected by several dams across the river, producing slack water from one to the other. The boats are drawn by horses travelling in tow paths on the bank. The dams are passed by means of canals and locks. The whole work comprises thirty-one dams; one hundred and twenty-five locks; one tunnel four hundred and fifty feet in length, cut through and under a solid rock; cost $2,336,380. Next in importance is the Union canal, extending from the Schuylkill, four miles below Reading, to the Susquehanna river, nine miles below Harrisburg; length eighty miles. There not being sufficient water to feed the canal on the summit level, the deficiency is supplied by two reservoirs, one containing twenty-seven acres, and the other eight; amount of excavation of both, twelve million cubic feet. They are supplied by two steam engines of one hundred horse power, each moving three water wheels. Whole cost, $2,000,000.

The Mauch Chunk rail road is an inclined plane, nine miles in length, from the mines to the Lehigh river. The descent is nine hundred and thirty-six feet. The coal is transported in cars, carrying one and a half tons each, and descending by their own weight. Any number of them may be connected together and regulated by a single conductor. The cars are drawn back by mules. Three hundred tons are usually discharged in a day. Cost of the rail road, three thousand dollars per mile. Similar improvements are made from other mines to water carriage, and all of public importance, as tending to cheapen this great article of fuel.

There are in Pennsylvania eight hundred and thirty-three miles of rail road, and ten hundred and thirty-five miles of canals completed, and eighty-six miles of rail roads, and one hundred and thirteen miles of canals unfinished.

COAL MINES. The discovery and successful operation of the Pennsylvania coal mines is of so much public importance, that every incident relating to them becomes of interest. In the year 1804, Doct. Thomas C. James, and Anthony Morris, of Philadelphia, during an excursion to some lands which they owned on the Lehigh river, visited Mauch Chunk mountain, the site of the principal coal bed. They took for a guide, Philip Gitner, a backwoodsman, residing on the mountain. At that time, there were only three or four small pits, into one of which

Philip descended and threw up some pieces of coal for their examination, giving the following account of his first discovery. When he took up his residence in that region, about twenty years ago, he built him a small cabin in the forest, and supported his family by his rifle, carrying his surplus game to the nighest store to exchange for other necessaries. At a particular time, he was without food for his family, and after being out all day with his gun, in quest of game, he was returning home in the evening over the mountain, unsuccessful and desponding. A drizzling rain beginning to fall, and darkness approaching, he bent his course homeward, considering himself the most lonely and forlorn of human beings, his foot stumbled against something which was driven forward by the stroke. He took it up, and having heard some stories respecting coal in that mountain, it occurred to him that this might be something of that nature. He carried it to his cabin, and went with it to John Weis, at Fort Allen, afterwards Northampton. Colonel Weis brought the specimen to Philadelphia, and submitted it to examination. After having ascertained its nature and qualities, Weis, with several partners undertook a speculation. Gitner, after pointing out to them the precise spot where the lump of coal was found, and giving them all the information he possessed, was rewarded by their assisting him in getting through the forms of the patent office, the title to a small tract of land comprising a mill seat, which however proved to be covered by a former survey.

Coal Companies. Weis and his associates, having obtained this disclosure and information from Gitner, for little or no compensation, in the year 1792, formed themselves into an association called the Lehigh Coal Company, and took out a patent for ten thousand acres of unlocated land, including the Mauch Chunk mountain. The mines were opened and wrought with ease by the company, but the expense and difficulties of transportation, were such as to render the coal in the quarries worthless, and the enterprize was abandoned. The mines remained in a neglected state, without any further attempts to bring them into use, until 1806, when William Turnbull constructed an ark at Lausane, and transported two or three hundred bushels to Philadelphia. A portion of it was sold to the manager of the water works, for the centre square steam engine. On trial, he judged it to be an extinguisher rather than an aliment of fire. It was rejected as worthless, and broken and thrown upon the walks. The coal company next leased their lands to individuals on ten year leases, with the privilege of cutting timber for the purpose of floating their coal to market, with the expectation that their arks, sold in Philadelphia for lumber, would in a great measure pay the expense of transporting the coal. The lessees were to deliver ten thousand bushels of coal at the city

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annually for their privileges. They loaded several arks with coal, only three of which ever reached the city, and the business was abandoned.

During the war of 1812, Virginia coal which had been considerably used in Philadelphia, was not obtainable. Messrs. White and Hagard, engaged in manufacturing wire at the Schuylkill falls, procured a cart load of Lehigh coal for their works, at the price of a dollar per bushel. This was wasted without producing the requisite heat. A second load was procured, and a whole night spent in endeavoring to ignite a portion of it. On a second trial, the workmen shutting the furnace door, left the mill, in despair of success. On returning, they found the furnace in a glow of red heat. Four separate parcels of iron were heated and rolled before the renewal of the fire. Having found that the best way of igniting it was to put it on grates with a small draught of air and to let it alone; that method was pursued with success, and the owners of the establishment thenceforward continued in the use of anthracite coal procured from Schuylkill county in wagons, and from the Lehigh in arks, until they sold out to the city for the convenience of the Fairmount water works.

White and Hagard being the principal owners of the Mauch Chunk mountain, then turned their attention to the means of transporting their wealth to market. In the year 1818, two companies, of which they were the principal proprietors and conductors, were formed; one called the Lehigh navigation, and the other the Lehigh coal company. In 1820, the two companies were united, and incorporated by the name of the Lehigh coal and navigation company. In that year, such facilities were

Coal mines of Pennsylvania.

made in transportation, that coal from the Mauch Chunk mountain was delivered to the citizens of Philadelphia for $8,50 a ton. Since that time, by further improvements in transportation, and by reason of competition with the coal descending the

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Schuylkill, the price has been reduced to $5,00 per ton, and coal has become the cheapest fuel in Philadelphia, and in the vicinity of the Schuylkill and Delaware rivers, and a great and increasing article of exportation. By the census of 1840, the amount of anthracite coal produced, was 859,686 tons, giving employment to 2977 men, and to an invested capital of $4,324,102. Pennsylvania also produced about eleven and a half million bushels bituminous coal, employing 1798 men.

IRON MINES. The iron interest of Pennsylvania has always been an important one, and the mines in the eastern part of the state were explored and worked in an early period of her colonial history; the coal found in the state has been of great advantage to the iron workers, as increasing the home supply, and bringing this important article nearer to the consumers; more than one hundred and eighty thousand tons of coal are annually consumed in Pennsylvania in the manufacture of iron. Nearly one hundred thousand tons each, per annum, of cast and bar iron, are produced in this state, giving employment to about twelve thousand men, and to about eight millions invested capital.

PHILADELPHIA. The city of Philadelphia is the second for size in the United States, situated at the head of ship navigation on the Delaware, one hundred and twenty miles from the sea by the course of the bay and river, and fifty-five in a direct line by land, in latitude 40°, containing a population of 205,850. It was the seat of the United States government, from the commencement of the revolution, with some intervals, to its final establishment at Washington in 1800, and for the state of Pennsylvania, until 1799. In 1787, the arrivals in the port of Philadelphia were, from foreign ports, five hundred and ninety-one, and coastwise three hundred and ninety-five, in all, nine hundred and eighty-six. In 1835, foreign, four hundred and twenty-nine; coastwise, three thousand five hundred and seventy-three, making a total of four thousand and two, or something more than four fold the first period.

The most useful and splendid work of which the city of Philadelphia, or any other in the United States, can boast, is that by which the waters of the Schuylkill are brought into the city, supplying its inhabitants at a cheap rate, with an abundance of pure and wholesome water, and furnishing an unfailing resource in case of fire.

In 1797, a plan was adopted to form a reservoir on the bank of the Schuylkill, from which water was to be raised and thrown into a tunnel, and thence carried to an engine house near the centre square of the city, where it was again to be raised into another reservoir by a second engine, and to be distributed in pipes through the city. The first Schuylkill water was thus

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introduced in 1801. The scheme was found to be imperfect and inadequate. In 1811 it was enlarged upon the original plan. After expending upon these experiments upwards of a million of dollars, they have been abandoned. The present works were commenced in 1819. A dam is thrown across the river at the falls, at the foot of Fairmount, two miles in a northwesterly direction from Independence square. On the top of Fairmount, four reservoirs, or tanks, are excavated, with a capacity for twenty million of gallons of water, fifty-six feet above the highest part of the city. The reservoirs are supplied by forcing pumps, operated upon by water power. Four wheels only have been put into operation, competent to a supply of six millions of gallons per day. The works are constructed for double the number of wheels, and to raise double the quantity of water if necessary. From the tanks the water is conducted in pipes through the city. A mistaken economy led to the use of wooden pipes at first, which were soon found to be subject to bursting and speedy decay. Iron pipes have been substituted to the extent of sixty miles in all their branches. Thirty gallons of water on the wheel, raises one into the reservoir. The daily supply in summer, is three millions of gallons. The whole cost amounted to $432,519, including $150,000 paid for the privileges. The only ordinary annual expense is fourteen hundred dollars a year, paid to a superintendent. The water rents amount to seventy thousand dollars annually, varying from two dollars, the lowest sum at which any private family is supplied, to one hundred dollars for the large establishments. The water was first introduced into the city in 1823. The expense and the benefits of this establishment were confined to the city proper. It has long since been found that there is an abundant supply for the Liberties north and south, to which they have of late been extended at reasonable rates. Incidental to the main object, is the facility which this abundant supply of water affords for the extinguishment of fires, and the consequent reduced rate of insurance. Another important incidental result is the preservation of cleanliness and consequent health of the city. At convenient distances hydrants are fixed, from which water is conveyed almost instantly, by means of hose, to the fires, and from which an abundant supply may at all times be drawn, for cleansing the streets.

The eastern penitentiary of Pennsylvania is situated on a rising ground, one mile northwesterly of the city. Its outer wall encloses an area of nearly twelve acres: is thirty feet high, and cost two hundred thousand dollars. The whole cost of the establishment when completed, is estimated at five hundred thousand dollars.

GIRARD'S BENEFACTIONS. In a notice of the city of Philadelphia a conspicuous place is due to the benefactions of Stephen

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Girard. This gentleman, a native of Bordeaux, came to the city a pennyless sailor boy. By frugality and industry, directed by a sound judgment, from the smallest beginnings of a poor trader, he amassed one of the largest estates in the Union, amounting to several millions. He was the sole proprietor of one of the richest banks in the city. He died December 28th, 1831, at the age of eighty-four years, leaving the whole of his property, amounting from six to ten millions of dollars, with the exception of a few legacies, not sensibly diminishing its amount, to the city, for various charitable purposes. One of the principal, was the founding of an orphan college. Funds were appropriated to this object sufficient to erect adequate buildings, and support a competent number of teachers, and to board and clothe the beneficiaries. The place designed in his will for the site of the college, was on a tract of forty-five acres of land, purchased by him shortly before his death for this purpose, on Peel hill in Penntownship, a healthy and elevated place, about three miles from Independence square. The size, proportion, and form of the building, is particularly pointed out; the leading points are firmness, convenience, and proportion, without superfluous ornament. It is to be sufficiently large to accommodate three hundred scholars, which it is calculated his benefaction will support. They are to be taken, first, from the city of Philadelphia; next, from the state at large; thirdly, from the city of New York, and fourthly, from New Orleans. Two millions of dollars are appropriated to this object, and if that should prove inadequate, such further sum as should be found necessary, is to be taken from other bequests. The will contains this singular provision: "that no ecclesiastic, missionary, or minister, of any sect whatever, shall ever hold or exercise any station or duty whatever, in said college, nor shall any such person ever come within the premises appropriated to the purposes of said college." An immense sum has already been expended on this building, and it is yet in an unfinished state.

PITTSBURG. The second city for size and importance, is Pittsburgh, the capital of western Pennsylvania, containing a population within its chartered limits of 21,115. The city is built at the forks of the Alleghany and Monongahela rivers, which, at their junction, take the name of Ohio; distant from Philadelphia, in a direct line, 300 miles; from Harrisburg, on the Susquehanna, 200; and from New Orleans, 2000 miles by water, and 1100 by land.

Manufactures of various kinds are carried on to a great extent, to the success of which, the cheapness of provisions, and the abundance of coal, in the immediate neighborhood, essentially contribute. Under almost any circumstances, Pittsburg must continue to increase; and should the united exertions of eastern and western Pennsylvania succeed in making it the entrepot for

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Pennsylvania Capitol, Harrisburg.

the merchandize destined for the west, it will soon take rank among the first cities of the Union. Harrisburg, the capital of the state, contains 5980 inhabitants.

BRADDOCK'S FIELD. Nine miles east of Pittsburg, on the north bank of the Monongahela, is the battle ground, celebrated in history as Braddock's field, and famed for the destruction of an army of two British regiments of infantry and provincial militia, amounting to 2200 men, by 50 Frenchmen, and 250 Indians, on the 16th of July, 1775. The object of the expedition was to dislodge the French from fort Duquesne, erected the year before at the forks, now the site of Pittsburg. The occasion of the defeat was the unskillfulness of the commanding general, Braddock, and his persevering obstinacy in fighting Indians according to the rules of European tactics. The general being killed, a retreat, conducted with great skill by Major Washington, saved a remnant of the army. It was confidently believed that the general was shot by one of his own party. Thomas Fawcet, late a resident at Laurel hill in western Pennsylvania, a short time before his death, gave the following account of the transaction. The general, in the course of the battle, ordered the provincial troops, Pennsylvania and Virginia militia, to form a column and march upon the enemy; but they adhering to the Indian mode of fighting, from behind trees, disobeyed the order, and the general, in his vexation, rode up to a young man named Fawcet, and cut him down with his sword; the slaughtered soldier was the brother of the narrator; the latter witnessing the transaction, watched his opportunity, and shot the general through the body. By whatever means Braddock was slain, his death saved the remains of the army.

WILLIAM PENN. Pennsylvania was first settled in 1638, by

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a colony of Swedes, and soon after a colony of Dutch and Finns, settled on the banks of the Delaware below. In 1682, Charles the Second, having conquered the New Netherlands, as the country from New York to the Chesapeake was then called, granted the province of Pennsylvania, including Delaware, to William Penn, in satisfaction of a debt due from the crown to his father. This singular and distinguished statesman was born at London in 1644, the only son of William Penn, vice admiral of England under Cromwell, and a distinguished naval officer under Charles the Second. William, the younger, at the age of twelve years, became deeply imbued with the religious sentiments of a then poor and despised sect, called Quakers. His father, disappointed and irritated at what he considered the boy's folly, after many fruitless attempts to dissuade him, beat him severely, and turned him out of doors. He was banished to Ireland, and there imprisoned as a culprit on account of his religion. His father subsequently relenting, took him home, and offered to compound with him, and to indulge him in all his peculiarities, except that he should take off his hat in the presence of the royal family. To this species of man-worship, William refused his assent, and was again banished from his father's house.

At the age of twenty-four, he became a preacher, and an author, for which he was imprisoned in the Tower; and was indicted at the old Bailey sessions, for being present at, and preaching to, an unlawful and seditious assembly. Penn pleaded his own cause with such force, that the jury acquitted him; for which they were fined, and Penn committed to Newgate. His father died in 1670, fully reconciled to his son, and leaving him a plentiful estate, including a large demand against the crown, for his services as admiral in a successful war against the Dutch. On his death-bed he gave his son this advice. "Son William, let nothing in this world tempt you to wrong your conscience; so will you keep peace at home, which will be a feast to you in a day of trouble."

Persecution continuing to rage, Penn turned his thoughts to a settlement in the new world, where he and his friends might enjoy their religious opinions without molestation; and "where an example might be set to the nations, of a just and righteous government. There may be room enough there," he said, "though not here, for such a holy experiment." He readily obtained a patent to such an extent as he wished, from Charles, who, by a grant of a tract of country, not his own, discharged a heavy debt, and at the same time was gratified at the departure of subjects, whose pure morals, and irreproachable lives, were a constant reproof to a dissolute court.

Penn immediately published a description of his province, offering easy terms of settlement, and inviting the oppressed of all nations to go with him; at the same time, sending a message

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of peace to the natives, informing them of his desire to hold his possessions with their consent and good will, and at a fair equivalent. He then drew up what he called the fundamental constitution of Pennsylvania, embracing a principle hitherto unknown to any nation, "that all persons who confess, and acknowledge one Almighty and Eternal God to be the Creator, and upholder, and ruler of the world, and that hold themselves obliged in conscience to live peaceably and justly in civil society, shall in no wise be molested or prejudiced for their religious persuasion or practice, in matters of faith and worship, or be compelled at any time to frequent or maintain any religious worship, place, or ministry whatever." This principle was as politic as it was liberal. On its publication, many respectable families, from various parts of Europe, removed to the land of Penn, to enjoy that freedom of religion denied them at home.

Under the shelter of a large oak, near the banks of the Delaware, in that part of Philadelphia now called Kensington, he met the Indian Chiefs, and formed an honest and satisfactory treaty with them, giving a fair equivalent for their lands; the first, and nearly the only treaty of that character ever made between the white man and the Indian. Its policy was evinced in the firm and steady friendship of the Indians to the colony. Penn never had occasion to arm his followers against Indian hostilities. The city of Philadelphia was laid out, and in the course of two years, fifty vessels arrived with settlers from England, Ireland, Holland, and Germany. Penn made use of his influence at court, to procure a suspension of the penal laws against dissenters, and the release of fifteen hundred of his persecuted brethren from the various prisons of England, who immediately took refuge in this asylum. Penn died in England in 1718, at the age of seventy-four. Of his ability as a politician and legislator, the rapid growth and continued prosperity of his colony, is a lasting monument.

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CHAPTER XVII.

Delaware. Number of inhabitants. Representation in Congress. Commerce. Canal. Rail Roads. Brandywine River. Maryland. Its constitution. Colleges. Chesapeake and Ohio canal. Its progress and estimated cost. Controversy with the rail road company. Decision of the court; compromise. Baltimore and Ohio rail road; its object; progress and estimated cost. Virginia. Number and character of its population. Eastern and western sections. Its constitution. Education. Colleges. Internal improvements. First settlement; price of wives sold to the first settlers. Chief towns. North Carolina. Its constitution. Education. College. Gold region. Internal improvements. South Carolina. Its constitution; provision for calling a convention. Colleges. Internal Improvements. First settlement. Locke's constitution. Commerce and chief towns. Georgia. Its constitution. Education in the south. Rice and cotton. Invention of the cotton gin. Eli Whitney; anecdotes of him; his patroness, Mrs. Miller. Law suits respecting the patent. Georgia, western lands. Alabama. Its constitution. Appropriation of lands for education and internal improvement. Massacre at Fort Mimms. Creek war of 1813. *Speech of the Indian chief, Witherford. Rapid settlement. Mississippi. Its constitution. Internal improvements and education. Mississippi river. Its true source first discovered in* 1832. *Lands on its upper waters. Controversy relative to its navigation. Valley of the Mississippi. Its extent, fertility, and means of inland navigation. Louisiana. Its laws. New Orleans. Constitutional questions. Education. Production of sugar. Boundaries of the territory. Governor Clairborne's description of the inhabitants in* 1803. *Its rapid growth. Tennessee. Its constitution. Definition of executive power. Education. Colleges. Division into eastern and western sections. Kentucky. Its first settlement. Anecdotes of Daniel Boone. Ohio. The North West territory. Its cession by Virginia. Constitution. Canals. Columbus. Cleveland. Colleges and education. William Henry Harrison. Indiana. Its constitution. Prohibition regarding banks. Education. Canals and rail roads. Illinois. Cumberland road. Constitution of Illinois. Education. Mammoth. Tumuli. Missouri. Debate on slavery. Constitution of Missouri. Colleges. Lead mines. Missouri river. Steam navigation. Jefferson. St. Louis. Arkansas. Its constitution. Michigan. Its constitution. Education. Internal improvements. Missouri Territory. Indian Territory. Oregon. Its extent. District of Columbia. Florida. Florida war. Wisconsin Territory. State Debts.*

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DELAWARE.

DELAWARE. Delaware, the smallest of the United States in numbers, and the least in territory, except Rhode Island, lies on the Delaware bay to the south of Philadelphia, and is bordered on the west and south by Maryland. Length, ninety-two, and breadth, twenty-eight miles; superficies, two thousand one hundred and twenty square miles; number of inhabitants, seventy-eight thousand and eighty-five; thirty-six to the square mile; militia, nine thousand two hundred and twenty-nine.

The state was originally embraced in the grant to William Penn, and constituted a part of Pennsylvania, under the name of the three lower counties on the Delaware, until 1711. Its constitution, as revised and amended in 1831, has nothing in principle, and little in its details, to distinguish it from those of modern date in the other states. The governor and senators are chosen for four years, the representatives for two, and the stated sessions of the legislature are biennial. The whole civil list, embracing the salaries of the executive and judiciary, and the legislative expenses, are estimated at $13,000 annually.

The state has been constantly losing its numerical influence in the house of representatives of the Congress of the United States.

Slavery has always been tolerated in Delaware; the number of slaves in 1790, was eight thousand eight hundred and eighty-seven, or about one slave to six white persons. In 1830, the number of slaves was three thousand three hundred and five, being one to twenty-two whites. In 1840, the number was reduced to two thousand six hundred and five, being one to thirty whites. The result being a practical demonstration, so far as that state is concerned, that free labor is preferable to that of slaves.

Wheat Field and Mill.

Delaware, in common with the other Middle States, is a grain growing country. According to its size, it produces its full proportion of wheat. The celebrated flour mills on the Brandy-

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wine river manufacture all the wheat of this state, and much from the neighboring states. The flour is principally shipped at Philadelphia. The most important town in the state is Wilmington, containing a population of 8,367. Dover, the seat of government, contains 3,740 inhabitants.

EDUCATION. A college was opened at Newark, in 1834; the number of students in the August following, was sixty, and is now one hundred. The institution has a fund of $45,000. The school fund amounts to $183,000. There are one hundred and eighty two public schools in operation, in which over six thousand scholars receive instruction.

The state, bordering on Delaware bay and river, for upwards of one hundred miles, has no port of any distinction; vessels sometimes touch at Wilmington, but Philapelphia is the port for the state.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. The principal part of the state bordering upon navigable waters, its citizens have had little occasion to embark in enterprizes of internal improvement. In the upper section of the state, the Delaware and Chesapeake bays approach within thirteen miles of each other; and it became a matter of deep interest to the citizens of Philadelphia and Baltimore, to open an inland navigation between them. For this purpose, the Delaware and Chesapeake canal was commenced in 1824, and opened for navigation in 1829, at an expense of upwards of $2,000,000. The canal is thirteen and a half miles in length, sixty-six feet in width at the surface, with a depth of ten feet of water, designed for sloop navigation, and the bay craft of both waters. It leaves the river at Delaware city, forty-five miles below Philadelphia, and enters the waters of the Chesapeake at Back creek. The extraordinary expense of this canal, averaging more than $160,000 a mile, is to be attributed to a deep cut through a ridge of highlands, dividing the waters of the two bays, and to the difficulty of making a canal and tow path through the St. George's pond and marsh. Vessels navigating the bays are drawn through this canal by horses in four hours, and passenger canal boats, in two.

The canal had been in operation but a short time, before the Newcastle and Frenchtown rail road was set up in opposition to it, commencing at Newcastle, and terminating at Frenchtown in Maryland, sixteen miles in length. The distance is passed with locomotive engines, with any number of cars attached to them, in fifty minutes. The time of passing between the two cities is shortened by this route, about two hours. This, in the present state of feeling in regard to rapid motion, is deemed a great acquisition, and is sufficient to take most of the passengers from the canal line. The rail road was completed in 1832, at an expense of $400,000, including damages for the lands, and the expenses of a wharf, depots, and locomotives.

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The Wilmington and Susquehanna rail road is thirty-three miles long; it was completed in 1837, and cost $1,200,000

BRANDYWINE RIVER. The only river of any note in the state, is the Brandywine, distinguished for giving name to a battle fought near its banks on the 11th of September, 1777, which, decided the fate of the city of Philadelphia. In this battle, General Lafayette first distinguished himself, and was wounded. The American loss in killed and wounded was a thousand, and a road was thereby opened for the British to the city, which was entered by them on the 20th of September.

MARYLAND. The state of Maryland lies on both sides of the Chesapeake bay, bounded on the north by Pennsylvania, and separated from Virginia on the west, by the Potomac river, between 38° and 40° north latitude, containing thirteen thousand nine hundred and fifty square miles, and a population of four hundred and sixty-nine thousand two hundred and thirty-two, including eighty-nine thousand four hundred and ninety-five slaves, and sixty-two thousand and twenty free persons of color, the whole population averaging thirty-three to the square mile. Militia, forty-six thousand eight hundred and sixty-four. Flour and tobacco are the staple productions of the state, of the former article, more than five hundred thousand barrels have been inspected in Baltimore in one year.

ITS CONSTITUTION. The constitution of Maryland as formed in 1776, with sundry amendments, the most recent of which were adopted in 1838, vests the legislative power in a senate and house of delegates; the senate consists of one from each county, and one from the city of Baltimore; one third of the senators are elected every second year. Members of the house of delegates are elected annually. The governor is elected by the people for three years, but is ineligible for the next succeeding term. The state is divided into three districts, and the governor is to be taken from each of the districts alternately. The general assembly meets annually on the last Monday in December, at Annapolis. Every white male citizen who has resided in the state one year, has the right of suffrage.

EDUCATION. A patent was granted for Maryland to Cecilius Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholic, in 1632; and the settlement commenced at the town of St. Mary's, on the peninsula between the Potomac and Pautuxent rivers, in 1634, by persons of that religious denomination fleeing from protestant persecution. They established a free toleration to all sects, and continued for a long period to be the most numerous denomination. Their cathedral in the city of Baltimore, is one of the most elegant houses of public worship in the United States. Maryland has

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three colleges, one called St. Mary's, pleasantly situated near the confines of the city of Baltimore, founded in 1799. Number of students, one hundred and sixty. St John's college at Annapolis, founded in 1784, and Mount St. Mary's, founded in

Interior of Baltimore Cathedral.

1830, at Emmettsburg, at the foot of a branch of the blue ridge mountains, fifty miles northwest of Baltimore.

The university of Maryland was incorporated in 1812, of which a medical college formed one department. A collegiate department was organized and expected to go into operation in 1830, but the medical and law department are the only ones which have commenced. There are several academies in the state, which receive annual endowments from the public treas-

Baltimore Monument.

ury. Banks are taxed for the support of schools, to the amount of one fifth of one per cent. on their capital. The share receiv-

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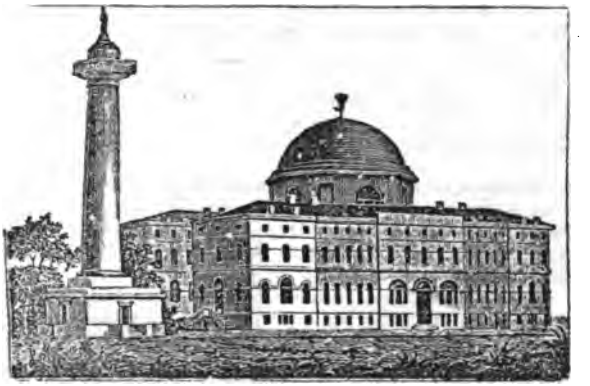
ed by this state from the surplus revenue was also added to the school fund.

Baltimore, the third city in the United States, stands on the Petapsco river, twelve miles above its entrance into the Chesapeake, in latitude 39°, thirty-seven miles east of Washington. Population, 102,313. In September, 1814, general Ross, with a British army of 5000 men, having made a successful visit to Washington, determined to make this city his head quarters. For this purpose, he landed at Northpoint, fourteen miles below the city, and on the 13th, was met and slain by an American force, consisting principally of the elite of the city. The next day an unsuccessful attack was made by water on fort McHenry. After these defeats, a council of war was held, at which it was determined that the city could be taken, but that it would not be worth the expenditure, and the enterprize was abandoned. A considerable number of respectable citizens were slain, to whose memory a marble monument has been erected in the city, and inscribed with their names.

One of the most ornamental buildings in Baltimore, is the Exchange. The Washington monument is an elegant Doric column, 140 feet in height, and twenty feet in diameter, surmounted by a collossal statue of Washington.



Baltimore Exchange and Washington Monument.

Annapolis, on the western shore of the Chesapeake, twenty-eight miles below Baltimore, is the seat of government, and contains 2,792 inhabitants. The senate chamber is the place where general Washington resigned his commission at the close of the revolutionary war, to the continental congress there assembled. Great care is taken to preserve the scenery in the chamber as it then existed.

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CHESAPEAKE AND OHIO CANAL. The most expensive work of internal improvement undertaken in the United States, is the Chesapeake and Ohio canal. A charter for this object was granted by Virginia, in 1824, and by congress and the state of Maryland, in 1825. The ground was broken by Mr. Adams, president of the United States, on the 4th of July, 1828. The canal is to extend from the navigable waters of the Potomac, in the District of Columbia to the Ohio, near Pittsburg, 340 miles. Amount of lockage required on the whole rout, 3215 feet, rendering necessary four hundred locks of eight feet lift. At the summit of the Alleghany, a tunnel is required of four miles in length; the whole cost is estimated at twenty-two millions of dollars. One million of the stock has been taken by the United States. The route of the canal is on the bank of the Potomac nearly to its source, thence across the Alleghany mountains to the head waters of the Youghiogeny, a branch of the Ohio, and in the valley of that river to its termination. The first sixty-four miles of the canal, extending from Georgetown to Harper's ferry, was opened for navigation in October, 1833. The next forty-three miles, from Harper's ferry to the vicinity of Hagerstown, has been completed. Congress have been strongly solicited, during the session of 1833 and '34, to add another million of dollars to their subscription, and the state of Maryland has proposed, on that condition, to add $500,000. But the doctrine, that it is improper for the general government, on any occasion, to connect itself in interest with private corporations, stands in the way of such an application.

BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAIL ROAD. The citizens of Baltimore have long been anxious on the subject of the great western trade. In their view, that city is more accessible to the west than any other on the Atlantic board. In 1827, a charter for the Baltimore and Ohio rail road company was obtained from the states of Maryland, Virginia and Pennsylvania, the object of which was to construct a rail road from Baltimare to some point on the Ohio near Pittsburg; its capital is $5,000,000, being the amount of the estimated expense. It was readily subscribed, and the work commenced on the same day with the canal. In the outset, these companies were hostile to each other, their interests being supposed to interfere. At a place called the point of rocks on the Potomac, fifty-six miles from Baltimore, and forty-eight from Washington, the road comes in contact with the canal; from thence, for a considerable distance, nature seems scarcely to have left room in the neighborhood of the river for either. Both wished to occupy the same ground on its border. The canal company was first incorporated, and first surveyed a route. The rail road company purchased of the proprietors the right of soil, and was proceeding to construct their road over the ground surveyed by the canal company. A

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process in chancery was instituted, the object of which was to determine in which company the prior right of selecting the ground was vested, and after pending about two years it was decided by the highest chancery tribunal in Maryland in favor of the canal company; and for a time both plans seemed likely to fail; one for a want of funds, the other for the want of ground.

A compromise was effected in May, 1833, by which the canal company agreed, for the sum of $266,000, to prepare and grade a road four miles in length, by the side of the canal, over the contested ground. Since that time, the companies have acted in harmony, the rail road company joining that of the canal in an application to Congress for a further subscription of a million of dollars to the stock of the latter. Both, it is expected, will proceed to the eastern base of the Alleghany, two hundred miles from the place of departure. Over that stupendous ridge, it is not expected that more than one mode will be attempted at present. Of the two proposed, public opinion is in favor of the rail road. The tunnel required for the canal is of greater length than any one ever yet made. To perforate the Alleghany for a distance of four miles, is an appalling undertaking; and when accomplished, the passage must be a dreary one. The whole lockage on the canal being estimated at 3315 feet, and the ordinary detention in passing the locks, at the rate of one minute for a foot, gives fifty-three hours for the whole time of passing the locks. Sixty-eight hours is the time required for passing the whole distance at the rate of five miles an hour, exclusive of detention; and requiring a period of something more than five days continued motion, for a passage on the canal from Washington to Pittsburg.

The rail road company expect to pass the Alleghany summit by a series of inclined planes, with stationary engines; from the western base to the Ohio river, the road is to be constructed on a line so nearly level as to be traversed without their aid. At the average speed of ten miles an hour, the whole distance will be passed in something less than a day and a half. The company have undertaken a branch from the main stem near Elkridge landing to the city of Washington thirty-three miles. Other circumstances favorable to the rail road, are, that it may be depended on as a means of passage and transportation at all seasons of the year; and that Baltimore is the great entrepot of Atlantic commerce, accessible at almost all times from the sea.

VIRGINIA. The state of Virginia lies next west and south of Maryland, extending from the Atlantic to the Ohio, three hundred and fifty miles; and from Maryland to North Carolina, nearly the same distance; embracing an area of 65,624 square miles, and containing 1,239,797 inhabitants, including 448,987 slaves, and 49,842 free persons of color. Militia, 107,547; pop-

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ulation, eighteen to the square mile. The state of Virginia for many purposes is divided into two sections, the eastern and western, the Alleghany being the division line.

ITS CONSTITUTION. The constitution of Virginia was first formed in June, 1776, while she was a colony of Great Britain. It is prefaced by a bill of rights of sixteen articles, the object of which was to deny the usurpations of the king and parliament; the concluding one contains these propositions, which were then novel: "That religion, or the duty which we owe to our Creator, and the manner of discharging it, can be directed only by reason and conviction, not by force or violence; and therefore, all men are equally entitled to the free exercise of religion, according to the dictates of conscience, and that it is the mutual duty of all to practice christian forbearance, love, and charity towards each other."

In 1830, a new constitution was formed upon the basis of the former one, and preserving the declaration of rights. On the question, what consideration the slave population should have in settling the proportion of representation in the two houses among the several districts of the state, long and ardent discussions were had between the east and west. They seemed at one time to indicate a dissolution of the convention, without coming to any result. The subject was finally compromised, not by settling any particular proportion, but by dividing the state into four sections; the first extends from the sea to the head of tide water; the second between the head of tide water and the Blue Ridge; third, from thence to the Alleghany, and the fourth all west of the Alleghany; and allotting to each a given number of representatives. The constitution directs the legislature to re-apportion the representation every ten years, but prohibits them from varying the existing proportions between the great districts; so that the west cannot avail itself of its greater increase of population, to increase its influence in the legislature.

The house of delegates have the sole power of originating laws; the senate can reject, or propose amendments. The right of suffrage is restricted to white male citizens, who are freeholders or lessees of a term of not less than five years, and of the annual value of twenty dollars, or are householders and heads of families, and pay taxes. All votes at elections are to be given openly and audibly, and not by ballot. The governor is appointed by joint vote of the general assembly, for three years, and is incapable of being elected for the succeeding term. The judges are also appointed by joint vote, and hold their offices during good behavior, subject to be removed by a concurrent vote of two thirds of both houses; the cause of removal to be entered on the journal of each house, and the judge to have notice and opportunity to make defence.

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The governor is assisted by a privy council, to consist of three persons, chosen also by joint vote of the legislature, for three years, and so arranged as that one shall be renewed annually. The constitution contains a proscriptive clause, providing "that ministers of the gospel and priests of every denomination, shall be incapable of being elected members of either house of assembly."

EDUCATION. The general assembly in 1810 established a literary fund, appropriating the proceeds of all fines, forfeitures, and escheats to the encouragement of learning. In 1816, the fund was increased by the appropriation of the debt due from the United States, for advances made by the state to the army in the war of 1813. The sum of $45,000 is annually distributed to the several counties, in proportion to their white population, for the sole object of instructing them in the elements of learning. In most of the counties in Virginia, the common schools are for the poor only; but little more than half of the poor children are sent to school, and these not three months in the year. The subject of education is attracting increased interest in this state. The amount of the literary fund is about one and a half millions of dollars, yielding an annual income of about eighty thousand.

Virginia University.

The colleges in Virginia are, William and Mary, established at Williamsburg in 1693, the oldest college in the United States except Harvard; number of students, one hundred and forty. Hampden Sidney, founded in 1774; number of students, seventy-five. Washington college, founded at Lexington, in 1812; number of students, one hundred and thirty-six. University of Virginia, founded in 1819; number of students, two hundred and forty-three. This college owes its origin to the exertions of

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Mr. Jefferson, after his retirement. It is situated at Charlottesville, three miles from Monticello, and is intended for a higher grade of education than other colleges in the United States. Two hundred and thirty thousand dollars, and an annuity of fifteen thousand, have been granted to it from the literature fund. Randolph Macon college, at Boydstown, was founded in 1832, and has one hundred and three students. Emory and Henry college, founded in 1839, has one hundred and twenty students. Rector college, founded in 1839, has fifty students.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. In none of the Atlantic States, in proportion to their extent and population, has so little been done to improve common highways, as in Virginia. Considerable attention has been paid to improvements of a higher class. Two important canals have been constructed, and are in successful operation; one called the Dismal Swamp canal, connects the navigable waters of the Chesapeake with Albemarle sound in North Carolina; the other, James river and Kanawha canal, extends from Richmond to Buchanan, one hundred and seventy-five miles. Several important rail roads have been commenced.

In 1816, the legislature created a fund for internal improvements, the capital of which, in 1831, amounted to a million and a half of dollars, and the annual income to $90,000. From this fund the state subscribes two fifths of the capital stock in aid of such improvements as are authorized by the legislature, and undertaken by private companies. Upwards of twenty incorporated companies have been aided by this fund. It is under the management of thirteen directors, styled *the board of public works*, and selected proportionably from the different districts of the state, together with the governor, treasurer, and auditor, who are officially members of the board.

Two rail roads are completed from Richmond, one from Aquia creek, seventy-five miles, the other to Petersburg, twenty-three miles; two rail roads are in operation from Petersburg, one to Welden, N. C., fifty-nine miles; the other to City Point, twelve miles; the Portsmouth and Roanoke rail road, from Portsmouth to Welden, N. C. is eighty miles in length; the Winchester and Potomac, from Harper's Ferry to Winchester, thirty-two miles.

At a recent session of the legislature, the sum of about $4,500,000, was appropriated for various internal improvements.

There are eight banks in the state, with several branches.

ITS FIRST SETTLEMENT. The first European settlement in what now constitutes the United States, commenced at Jamestown, in Virginia, under the direction of John Smith, in 1607. The first emigrants being principally males, the colony was likely to become extinct for the want of females. To remedy

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this evil, the Virginia company at London, who then had the direction of its affairs, in 1620, procured one hundred and sixty females of humble condition, but of fair character, and sent them to the colony to be disposed of as wives to the planters, at the rate of one hundred and sixty pounds of tobacco for each, being the average expense of procuring and shipping them. This singular proceeding was attended with happy effects to the parties, and to the colony.

The christian religion, according to the forms of the episcopal church, was the established religion of Virginia during its colonial state. In 1785, the legislature repealed all laws which recognized the protestant episcopal church as a legal establishment. The glebe lands, and other church property, except the houses of worship, were taken from their owners and vested in the overseers of the poor, reserving to the incumbents only an estate for life.

Episcopal Church — Richmond.

At the commencement of the revolution, Virginia was much the largest and most powerful state in the confederacy. Though she had individually suffered nothing, she took an early and sympathetic part in oppressions attempted to be inflicted on Massachusetts. Mr. Jefferson from the former, and Mr. Adams from the latter, were united in principles and measures, and directed the early proceedings of Congress which eventuated in the independence of the states. She has furnished a president of the United States for eight out of the thirteen presidential terms that have already occurred, and the present acting executive, Mr. Tyler, is also a Virginian.

Virginia has no large cities, Norfolk, situated on Elizabeth river, eight miles above its entrance into the Chesapeake, is the most commercial. It contains a population of 10,920. Richmond is the seat of government, situated on James river, at the head of tide water, one hundred and fifty miles above its mouth.

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It contains a population of 20,153. Charlotteville is eighty-six miles north-west of Richmond; two miles to the east of this village is Monticello, the seat of the late president Jefferson, on a gentle rise, near the base of Carter's mountain.

NORTH CAROLINA. North Carolina, next south of Virginia, extends from the Atlantic to the state of Tennessee, containing 50,000 square miles, and 753,419 inhabitants, of which 245,817 are slaves, and 22,732 free colored. The militia amount to 66,552. Population to the square mile, fifteen.

ITS CONSTITUTION. The constitution of North Carolina was formed in 1776, and amended in 1835. This is the only constitution in which the word *commons* is used to designate the second or more numerous branch of the legislature. It is inappropriate to the American constitutions, because it is connected with the idea of a nobility, or a higher order of rank in society, which is not recognized in any of the United States.

The constitution of North Carolina provides that the governor, senate, and house of commons, shall be chosen biennially; that the general assembly shall meet biennially, and, at each session, elect, by a joint vote of the two houses, a secretary of state, treasurer, and council of state, who are to continue in office for the term of two years. The general assembly is also to appoint an attorney general, whose term of office is to be four years. The governor is not eligible more than four years in any term of six years.

The thirty-second section of the constitution provides, that "no person who shall deny the being of a God, or the truth of the Christian religion, or the divine authority of the Old and New Testaments, or who shall hold religious principles incompatible with the freedom or safety of the state, shall be capable of holding any office, or place of trust, or profit, in the civil department within this state."

Test acts of this character, however well intended, have been found to answer no valuable purpose.

The first declaration of American independence was made in the interior of North Carolina. A convention of two delegates from each militia company in the county of Mecklenberg, met at Charlotte, on the 19th of May, 1775, "to take into consideration the existing state of things." From this meeting issued a manifesto, containing most of the principles of that made by congress on the 4th of July of the succeeding year.

EDUCATION. There is a college in the state, established at Chapel Hill, called the university of North Carolina; number of students, one hundred and sixty-nine. Davison college was founded in Mecklenburg county in 1837. Wake Forest college, founded in 1833. Academies are established in various places,

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and an increasing attention has of late been paid to education. The state has a literary fund pledged to the support of common schools, consisting of swamp lands estimated at 1,500,000 acres, bank stock and cash amounting to something more than a million of dollars. The management of this fund is committed to a "board of literature."

North Carolina is divided into three sections; the tide water or alluvial, the hilly, and the mountainous section. In the first the plantations are large, and principally managed by slave labor; in this, the slaves are nearly as numerous as the whites. In this region also are extensive pine plains, or barrens, as they are called, affording great quantities of lumber for exportation. In the other two the plantations take the name of farms, and are smaller; much of the labor is done by whites. The elevation of a thousand feet, which is computed to be the average height of the table lands of Virginia and North Carolina above the tide water lands, is equivalent in relation to climate, to a difference of two and a half degrees of latitude; and gives the same temperature to western Virginia and North Carolina as to the latitude of 40° on the Atlantic coast.

Pine Plains.

North Carolina has no large towns; its citizens are chiefly agriculturists, settled upon their plantations and farms. Raleigh, on the river Neuse, 120 miles above Newbern, is the seat of government. Population, 2244. The latter is the largest and most commercial town in the state, and the principal place of export for corn and the productions of the pine forests.

There are three banks in the state, with several branches.

Gold Region. Gold was first discovered in the United States, on the border of the Yadkin river, in North Carolina. A small quantity of it was first brought to the mint for coinage in 1804. In 1824, it was found to the amount of $5000, and in 1833, to the amount of $475,000. The gold region, the righest

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and best part of which is in North Carolina, extends into Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee and Alabama, and is supposed to comprise a surface of about a thousand square miles. The director of the mint computes that one half only of the annual product reaches the mint, the other being exported in bullion, or wrought up in various manufactures. Considering the increased eagerness with which gold is now sought, and that it generally well rewards the search, scarcely a limit can be placed to the expected amount. Gold is found generally in minute particles near the surface, mixed with earth; sometimes in considerable lumps, nearly pure. The principal labor con-

Gold Washing.

sists in gathering and washing the particles. It has been estimated, that the total value of bullion found in the North Carolina mines, since their first discovery, amounts to ten millions of dollars.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. The internal improvement fund of this state, amounts to about $1,000,000; a number of rail road charters have been granted by the legislature; but two only which lie wholly within the state, have yet been completed, viz., the Wilmington and Raleigh rail road, 161 miles in length, extending from Wilmington, on the Cape Fear, to Weldon, on the Roanoke, where it connects with the Portsmouth and Roanoke rail road; and the Raleigh and Gaston rail road, 85 miles in length, extending from Raleigh to Gaston, on the Roanoke, where it connects with the Petersburg and Roanoke rail road. Both of these roads were opened in March, 1840.

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South Carolina. South Carolina is computed to contain thirty thousand square miles. Its number of white inhabitants is 259,084; of slaves, 327,008; of free colored, 8,276; whole number, 594,398: being twenty to the square mile. Its militia amount to 48,817. The domestic exports of South Carolina in 1840, exceeded ten millions of dollars.

The first constitution of South Carolina was made in 1775; the present one, in 1790, to which some amendments have since been added. The legislative authority is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate of forty-five members, elected for four years, one half biennially, and a house of representatives of 124 members, chosen for two years. The governor is chosen by joint ballot of both houses, for two years, at the first meeting after a house of representatives is chosen. The assembly meet annually at Columbia, on the fourth Monday of November. The governor can hold his office but two years out of six. He is called in the constitution the executive power, but in this, as in several other states, the operative and most important branch of this power is reserved to the legislature. The chancellor, judges, secretary of state, commissioners of the treasury, and surveyor general, are elected by joint ballot of both houses. The judges hold their offices during good behavior. Other executive officers hold their offices for four years, and are ineligible for the next term.

This constitution also contains a proscriptive clause against clergymen. In the eleventh article is a paragraph in the following terms; "No convention of people shall be called, unless by a concurrence of two thirds of both branches of the whole representation." In virtue of the powers supposed to be granted in this prohibitory clause, a special legislature ordered a convention to meet, November, 1832, which passed the celebrated nullification ordinance, declaring that the tariff law of 1832 was unconstitutional, and that its execution should not be permitted in South Carolina.

The bank of the state of South Carolina is an institution in which the state is the proprietor, and from which it draws an annual revenue of $150,000. Whole number of banks is twelve, with an authorized capital of about eleven and a half millions of dollars.

Colleges. The South Carolina college was established at Columbia, in 1804. It is wholly a state institution. Since its foundation, the state has paid $420,000 for buildings, library, cabinet, and instruction. Number of students, one hundred and fifty.

The Charleston college was first established in 1795, and in 1824, was new organized, and placed on a more respectable footing. It is supported by private donations, and tuition fees.

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The most liberal gifts have been one of $10,000 from Elias Harvey, and one of $12,000 from Thomas Hanscome.

There is a Presbyterian theological seminary at Columbia, a Lutheran seminary at Lexington, and the Baptist, at High Hills. The free school system was adopted in 1821.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. The Charleston and Cincinnati rail road, which is proposed to extend from Charleston to Cincinnati, and also to Louisville, for the purpose of opening a free communication between the valleys of the Ohio and the Mississippi, and the Atlantic ocean, was projected by the citizens of Charleston and Cincinnati, and charters have been obtained from the legislatures of all the states through which it is to pass, and surveys of several routes have been directed to be made.

The South Carolina rail road, which extends from Charleston to Hamburg, on the Savannah, opposite Augusta, is 136 miles long, and was completed in 1833.

There are several small canals in the state, the most important of which is the Santee canal, connecting the harbor of Charleston with the Santee. It is 22 miles long.

The principal commercial city of the south, is Charleston, situated on a tongue of land, formed by the confluence of the Ashley and Cooper rivers, seven miles from the sea. Population, 29,261, something more than half blacks. The seat of government is at Columbia, a village 120 miles north west of Charleston, containing 4,340 inhabitants.

ITS FIRST SETTLEMENT. The first permanent English settlement in the Carolinas, was by a colony from Massachusetts, in 1667. In 1608, a few settlers landed themselves at Oyster point, the junction of the Ashley and Cooper rivers, and laid the foundation of the city of Charleston. In 1662, Charles II. granted the whole country between latitude 31° and 36°, and extending indefinitely west, to lord Clarendon, and seven associates, who established a proprietary government. The proprietors employed John Locke, the celebrated moralist, to draw up what was considered a perfect form of government for the new colony. In practice it proved to be perfect in nothing but absurdity, and inapplicability to the condition of the country. It was soon abandoned; and in 1719, the colony was divided into North and South Carolina, the proprietary government relinquished, and the colonies placed under a royal government.

GEORGIA. Georgia is the most southern, and the last settled of the thirteen original states. It is separated from South Carolina, by the Savannah river, and bounded on the south by the Floridas, between 30° and 35° north latitude, in length from north to south 300, and in breadth 240 miles, containing 58,000 square miles, and 691,392 inhabitants, being in the proportion of

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twelve to the square mile. Slaves 280,844, free colored, 2,753. Militia, 57,312.

ITS CONSTITUTION. The Constitution of Georgia was first formed in 1775, revised in 1785, and again in 1798. The legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of two branches, each chosen annually. The assembly meet at Milledgeville, on the first Monday in November in each year. The governor is chosen by the people once in two years, and has a qualified negative on legislative proceedings. The judges of the supreme court are chosen by the general assembly, and hold their offices for three years, and those of the inferior courts during good behavior.

In the constitution of this state, as in most of the others, provision is made for the impeachment of public officers, for official misconduct. The Senate, or higher branch of the legislature, form the court for the trial of impeachments, and the house of representatives the accusers. On conviction, the punishment extends only to removal from office and future disqualification. Another provision is also made for the removal of delinquent or incompetent officers, by which the governor may displace them, on the application of two thirds of both branches of the legislature.

The principal literary institution is the university of Georgia, established at Athens in 1785. It has funds to the amount of $136,000, of which $100,000 is invested in the bank of Georgia, an institution belonging entirely to the state. The government guarantees this stock to yield eight per cent. interest annually. Number of students, one hundred and twenty-seven. Oglethorpe college, established at Medway, in 1836, has thirty-one students; Emory college, established at Oxford, in 1837, has thirty-nine students, and Christ college, at Montpelier, founded in 1839, has thirty-five students.

The proportion of white children in Georgia who are admitted at the common schools is small, but in forming a comparative estimate of the state of learning, particularly of common school education, between the south and north, it should be remembered that a large portion of the white population of the former are planters, occupying and residing on extensive plantations, that this population is necessarily sparse, and not in a condition to enjoy the benefit of common schools, like the inhabitants of villages. They are by no means inattentive to the education of their children. Private instructors are employed in many families; others send their children abroad for an education, and generally, this class are as well educated at the south as in the north. There are however, a considerable portion of children, whose parents are unable to adopt either of these modes, and who suffer much for the want of a common school education.

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The same remark applies to common school education in the new settlements in the west.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. Little has yet been done by Georgia in relation to internal improvements. A committee of the legislature of 1828, reported that within the thirteen preceding years, the sum of $324,500 had been appropriated to that object, but that the beneficial results expected, had not been realized, which they impute to the want of skill and fidelity in the managers. The plan was thereupon changed in 1829, and the further sum of $70,000, appropriated to the purchase of negroes, which with those which had before been purchased, amounted to one hundred. These were placed under the direction of two superintendents, and distributed into various parts of the state, to work on roads, and improve river navigation.

A canal has been constructed by a company incorporated for that purpose, from the Savannah river, near the city of Savannah, to the Ogeechee river, sixteen miles; also a canal from Brunswick to Alatamaha, twelve miles. Three important rail roads are in progress, which, when completed will form a chain of communication from Savannah to the Tennessee river, viz. the central rail road from Savannah to Macon, one hundred and ninety-two miles; the Monroe rail road from Macon to the eastern terminus of the Western and Atlantic rail road, one hundred and seventy-four miles; and the Western and Atlantic rail road, from its eastern end in De Kalb county to the river Tennessee, one hundred and thirty-eight miles. The Georgia rail road from Augusta to the same point on the Western and Atlantic rail road, 186 miles, is now in progress, and when both are completed, a continuous line will be in operation from Charleston, S. C. to the Tennessee river, viz. by the South Carolina rail road, 136 miles, Georgia, 186, Western and Atlantic, 138; total 460 miles.

RICE AND COTTON. The whole Atlantic seaboard from Virginia inclusive, to the southern extremity of the United States, embracing a width of from twenty to one hundred miles, is characterized as a low, marshy, unhealthy country, subject to agues, bilious and intermittent fevers, and supposed by geologists to have been once covered with water. Rice is the staple production of the low grounds. In 1841, the value of the exported portion of rice was upwards of $2,000,000.

The present great staple of the south from latitude 35° to 30°, is cotton. The value exported in the year ending September 30th, 1841, was $54,330,341, being more than one half in value of the whole domestic exports of the United States. The raising of cotton in the United States commenced about the year 1787; in 1791, the whole amount exported was sixty-four bales of three hundred pounds each. The business languished, and

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it was found that cotton could not be raised to meet competition in foreign markets, on account of the labor necessary to separate the seed from the hearl. A machine called the cotton gin, invented by Mr. Whitney, reduced this labor more than ten fold, rendered the raising of cotton the most profitable agriculture of the south, and more than doubled the value of every plantation adapted to the growth of cotton. The circumstances under which the cotton gin was invented and brought into use, are of a singular character, and on account of the importance of the invention, deserve a particular notice.

INVENTION OF THE COTTON GIN. Eli Whitney was a native of Massachusetts, born in 1765, of respectable parents, but in such moderate circumstances as to be unable to give him a finished education, which seemed to be his early favorite object. By his own industry and ingenuity, he found means to educate himself, and obtained a degree at Yale college, in 1792, at the age of twenty-seven. Immediately afterwards he proceeded to Georgia, in consequence of a previous engagement, to reside in the family of a gentleman as a private instructor. On his arrival he found his place pre-occupied, and he was left a stranger, and without resources.

Fortunately among the passengers on his voyage to Georgia, was Mrs. Greene, the widow of Nathaniel Greene, a distinguished general of the revolution. She was affluent, liberal, and a patroness of young men of talent. Being from the north, she took a peculiar interest in the success of those who came from the same section, and in Georgia felt a pride in bringing them into notice. On the passage she became acquainted with young Whitney, and gave him a cordial invitation to visit her at her seat at Mulberry Grove, near Savannah. After his disappointment, he availed himself of Mrs. Greene's invitation, and made known to her his condition. She gave him a further invitation to make her residence his home, until he should be able to qualify himself for the practice of law, according to his original intention.

Whitney was one of the greatest natural mechanics of the age, and employed his leisure hours in making curious articles, and presenting them to his benefactress, which were highly gratifying. A party of gentlemen, visiting Mrs. Greene in the course of the winter of 1792 and '93, fell into conversation on the subject of the recent experiment of raising cotton, expressing their regret that there was no means of separating the cotton fibre from the seed by machinery, remarking, that until ingenuity could devise one, it would be in vain to think of making a business of raising cotton for market.

During his residence at Mrs. Greene's, Whitney had a separate apartment, which after he had occupied for some time, had more the appearance of a workshop than a place of book study.

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Mrs. Greene replied to the regrets of her visiters, "Gentlemen, there is a yankee in the other room who can make any thing," and conducted them into Whitney's apartment, where she exhibited various specimens of his ingenuity, and introduced the man. On opening their business, he replied, "that he had never seen either cotton or cotton seed in his life." Whitney, however, was awake on the subject, as presenting a new field for his ingenuity. It being out of season for cotton in the seed, he went to Savannah and made search among the warehouses and boats, until he found a small quantity. He next set himself to work with such materials as he could procure, to construct a cotton gin. Wire, the most important article in its construction, was not to be found in the Savannah market, and he had to invent means and machinery for drawing it himself. Mrs. Green had at this time resident in her family, Mr. Miller, another young gentleman from the north, a graduate of Yale college, of Mr. Whitney's age and standing, a beneficiary whom she first engaged as a private tutor, and afterwards married. They were the only persons admitted into Mr. Whitney's workshop, or who knew what he was doing. The time he spent in this mysterious business was a matter of curiosity, and often of raillery, to the other members of the family. Towards the close of the winter the machine was so nearly completed as to leave no doubt of its success. Mrs. Greene then invited to her house, gentlemen from different parts of the state, and conducted them into Mr. Whitney's workshop, where they saw with astonishment and delight, a machine by which more cotton could be separated from the seed in a day by a single hand than could be done for weeks in the usual manner.

An invention so important to the agricultural interests of the south, and as it has since proved to various other departments of human industry, could not long remain a secret. The gentlemen who called to visit it carried home the news; multitudes came to see it, but it was thought not prudent to gratify their curiosity until the patent right was secured. So determined, however, were the people to possess the treasure, that regardless of all right, they broke open the shop in the night, and carried off the machine; and in this way, the public became possessed of the invention. Before Mr. Whitney could complete his model, and obtain a patent, a number of machines were in successful operation, constructed with some slight variation in hopes of evading the patent.

In May, 1793, Mr. Whitney entered into partnership with his friend Miller, both under the patronage of Mrs. Greene, who took great interest in the success of her young friends from the north. Miller was to furnish the funds to mature the invention, obtain the patent and prosecute the violation of it, and the profits to be equally shared between them. The patent was obtained in the fall of 1793. The citizens of Georgia entirely

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disregarded it, relying on the partiality of their juries to screen them from the effects of judicial process. The state of South Carolina purchased the right for that state for $50,000. North Carolina laid an assessment of forty cents on each saw employed in ginning cotton, some gins carrying forty saws, for five years, the nett avails of which were to be paid to the patentees. The law suits in Georgia for violations of the patent, were expensive, and protracted, and attended with various results, the juries being averse to rendering verdicts in favor of the patentees, and avoiding it whenever the ingenuity of council could furnish them with a plausible excuse. In the course of an argument, one of the council for the patentees remarked, that the invention had raised the value of landed estates in Georgia adapted to the raising of cotton, from fifty to a hundred per cent. Judge Johnson in reply, said, "that if we should assert that the benefits of this invention exceed a hundred million of dollars, we can prove the assertion by strict calculation." In 1812, Mr. Whitney presented a memorial to Congress for the renewal of the patent, stating that he had been unable to obtain any decision of his cases in Georgia until he had been eleven years in the law, and thirteen of the fourteen years of his patent had expired. That his invention had been the source of opulence to thousands; as a labor-saving machine, it enabled one man to do the work of a thousand, and that it furnished to the whole family of mankind at a cheap rate, a most convenient and essential article of clothing. His application was met by a united opposition from the south, and rejected. Mr. Whitney died in 1825, without having received any further benefits from his invention, than the before mentioned grants from North and South Carolina.

WESTERN LANDS. Georgia was the last settled of the thirteen original states. It was granted, or rather appropriated by George the Second, under the direction of general Oglethorpe and others, for the purpose of affording an asylum for the poor of Great Britain. The settlement commenced at Savannah, with the consent of the natives, in 1733, under the direction of general Oglethorpe, as the first governor. The charter extended along the 32d degree of latitude as its southern boundary, the width of the state, to the Mississippi. The Indians inhabiting and claiming this territory, were the most civilized and powerful of any in the colonies, and reluctantly yielded any portion of the back country.

The principal commercial city of Georgia is Savannah, at the head of sloop navigation on the Savannah river, twenty miles from its mouth. It has a population of 11,214, and is the chief place of export for the cotton, rice, and tobacco of the interior. The next considerable town is Augusta, on the same river, one hundred and forty miles from the sea. Population

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6403. Milledgeville, a town of 2095 inhabitants, on the west bank of the Oconee, ninety miles south-west of Augusta, is the seat of government.

ALABAMA. Alabama lies directly west of Georgia, and consists principally of the territory obtained from that state by the compromise of 1802, together with Mobile and the adjacent country, claimed by the United States as a part of the Louisiana purchase. Its extent is three hundred and thirty miles north and south, and one hundred and seventy-four in breadth, containing fifty thousand square miles; and 590,756 inhabitants, of which 253,532 are slaves and 2039 free colored. Militia, 44,332.

ITS CONSTITUTION. Its constitution was formed in 1819, and the State admitted into the Union, at the succeeding Congress. At this period, the process of making a State constitution had been so thoroughly understood, and so long practiced in the United States, that what was once a critical and difficult work was now an easy one. A new State had little else to do but to take one or more of those already made, and select from them, the substance of one for itself, varying it in its details according to circumstances. The constitution of Alabama, like its predecessors, divides the general powers of government into three sections, legislative, executive, and judiciary, and the legislative into two branches, a Senate and House of Representatives. The representatives are chosen annually, and the senate once in three years; one third to be renewed annually. The governor is elected by the people for two years, and eligible four years out of six. The judges are elected by joint ballot of the legislature, and hold their offices six years. The right of suffrage is vested in every white male citizen of the age of twenty-one years, and resident in the State.

EDUCATION. An institution, styled the university of Alabama, was established at Tuscaloosa, the seat of government, by the first legislature which met under the constitution, and incorporated by a supplementary act of the next. By an act of Congress, March, 1819, one section of land, six hundred and forty acres of each township of six miles square, was given to the inhabitants for the use of schools, and seventy-two sections being equal to two townships of six miles square, each 46,080 acres, for the support of a seminary of learning. About one-half of this grant has been sold for three hundred thousand dollars, and appropriated according to its original purpose. Number of students, eighty-two. La Grange college was founded at New Tuscaloosa in 1830; number of students, one hundred and forty. Spring Hill college, established the same year, has one hundred and seven students.

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INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. By the act of Congress admitting Alabama into the Union, five per cent. of the nett proceeds of the sale of all the public lands in the State was appropriated for making public roads and canals, and improving its navigable waters; three fifths were to be laid out within the State, and the other in making roads leading to the State, under the direction of Congress. This gave rise to what is called the three per cent. fund, vested in stock of the bank of Alabama. In 1830, it amounted to one hundred thousand dollars, and was intrusted to a board of six commissioners, to be laid out in works of internal improvement. Alabama being a cotton growing country, the great object of all internal improvements, is to facilitate the transportation of that article to Mobile, its only seaport, by means of canals, rail roads and improved river navigation. A number of rail roads have been projected.

MASSACRE AT FORT MIMMS Previous to the Creek war of 1813, the settlements in the Alabama territory, excepting Mobile, consisted of a few inhabitants on its principal waters. For their own security they had constructed a slight fortification, called Fort Mimms, on the Alabama river, sixteen miles above Fort Stoddard, which was garrisoned by one hundred and fifty volunteer militia of the territory.

In the summer of 1813, indications of hostility appeared among the surrounding Indians, which induced the inhabitants, to the amount of three hundred, to collect at Fort Mimms. At eleven o'clock in the forenoon of the 30th of August, a body of six hundred Indians issued from the adjoining wood, and advanced within a few rods of the fort before they were discovered. The sentinel cried out "Indian;" they gave the war whoop and rushed in at the gate before the garrison had time to shut it. This decided its fate. Major Beasly, the commanding officer, was mortally wounded, carried into the house and consumed in the flames. The buildings were burned, and the garrison and the inhabitants burned or massacred; but seventeen of the whole number escaped. The battle and massacre lasted until six in the afternoon, a great part of the time without any show of resistance, by which time the work of destruction was fully completed; the fort and buildings demolished, and upwards of four hundred men, women and children, destroyed. Exemplary vengeance was taken on the Creeks for this outrage. A series of brilliant victories, achieved by the neighboring militia, under the command of General Jackson, terminated on the 27th of March, 1814, in the slaughter of the remnant of the Creek warriors, and the submission of the nation. Two thousand of their warriors were slain, most of their towns burned, and their strong holds occupied by the United States troops.

Witherford, their great prophet and chief, who conducted them at fort Mimms, accompanied his surrender with this ad-

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dress to General Jackson: "I fought at Fort Mimms; I fought the Georgia army; I did you all the injury I could; had I been supported as I was promised, I would have done you more; but my warriors are all killed, I can fight no longer. I look back with sorrow that I have brought destruction upon my nation. I am now in your power; do with me as you please; I am a soldier." The conquest of the Creeks was followed by a treaty, negotiated by General Jackson and Colonel Hawkins, and concluded on the 10th of August, 1814; by which they surrendered a great part of the territory now constituting the state of Alabama, to the United States. The introduction of a large military force opened this country to their view, and made them acquainted with the fine rich lands on its rivers. At the commencement of the Creek war, the whole Mississippi territory had a population not exceeding twenty thousand white inhabitants. In 1820 it formed two states, containing two hundred thousand.

Mobile is the principal city and only seaport of Alabama. It is situated on a bay, thirty miles from the sea, in latitude 31°. After much contest with Spain, this place came into the possession of the United States, in 1813, as a part of the Louisiana purchase. It then contained three hundred inhabitants; in 1830, its numbers were 3194, and in 1840, 12,672. Being the only outlet for a rich and extensive interior, it is rapidly increasing. Steamboat navigation extends up the Tombigbee, a principal water of Mobile bay, to Tuscaloosa, the seat of government, three hundred miles above the city.

Alabama has three banks; one at Tuscaloosa, with several branches; and two at Mobile. Capital stock, $10,141,806.

MISSISSIPPI. The state of Mississippi is the western section of the Georgia cession, extending from Alabama to the Mississippi river one hundred and sixty miles; and from Tennessee to the gulf of Mexico, three hundred; between 30 and 35° north latitude. It contains forty-six thousand square miles, and 375,651 inhabitants, of which 195,211 are slaves, and 1,366, free colored. Population, eight to the square mile. A great portion of this state has been occupied until lately by the Chickasaw and Choctaw tribes of Indians, in number about thirty thousand. They have disposed of their lands, with some unimportant reservations, to the United States, and are removing westward beyond the territory of Arkansas.

ITS CONSTITUTION. The constitution of Mississippi was formed in August, 1817, and the state admitted into the Union at the succeeding Congress. It resembles, in most of its features, that of Alabama, of which it is the prototype. The principal executive and judicial officers are appointed by the joint vote of the legislature, *audibly* given. The judges hold their

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offices during good behaviour, but not beyond the age of sixty-five.

The constitution contains this singular provision: that the general assembly shall direct by law, in what manner and in what courts, suits may be brought against the state. It excludes ministers of the gospel, and priests of every denomination, and also all persons who deny the being of a God, or a future state of rewards and punishments, from civil office; the one on account of their profession, and the other on account of their creed.

In 1832, a law was passed, requiring all free colored persons to leave the state in ninety days, under penalty of five years servitude. Whether this law, and others of similar import, passed by some other states, is consistent with that clause in the constitution which provides, "that the citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states," has been much controverted, and depends entirely upon a limited, or a liberal construction of the word *citizen*.

EDUCATION. Oakland college was founded in 1831, and has one hundred and sixty students. Centenary, established at Brandon Springs in 1841; number of students, one hundred and seventy.

The town of Natchez, in latitude 32°, is the principal commercial place on the river. Jackson, on the Pearl river, is the seat of government. A board of internal improvements was organized in 1829, consisting of the governor and three commissioners, and authorized to negotiate a loan on the credit of the state, to the amount of $200,000, to be appropriated to the improvement of its public roads and navigable waters. Five per cent. of the avails of the sale of the public lands, in this, as in the other new states, is appropriated by congress, for the purposes of internal improvement. Several rail roads have been chartered, the most important of which is the Vicksburgh and Clinton, fifty-four miles in length.

RIVER MISSISSIPPI. The river Mississippi, the father of waters, as its name imports, bounds the state on the west, from latitude 31° to 35°, two hundred and eighty miles in length on a straight line, and seven hundred by the windings of the river. Much has been said, and but little known, as to the head waters, or source of this river, until a recent period. At the peace of 1783, the negotiators supposed that a line drawn due west from the lake of the Woods, a north-western water of lake Superior, would strike the Mississippi river, a considerable distance south of its source; hence it was provided that such a line should be the northern boundary of the United States; and that Great Britain should have the right of navigating the Mississippi, as

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holding lands upon its upper waters. Such a line, it was found, would not strike the river, but run considerably north of its source. It was next supposed that the most northern water of the Mississippi was as high as latitude 49° north.

In 1832, an expedition was fitted out, consisting of lieutenant Allen, a corporal, ten privates, Mr. Schoolcraft, and Dr. Houghton; the principal object of which was, to ascertain the true source of the Mississippi. They found it to be lake Bieche, seven miles long and three broad, in latitude 47° north, and longitude 96° west from London. From thence the waters ran in a northwesterly direction, to lake Winnepeg, in latitude 48°; from thence in a southerly direction, to the ocean, in latitude 30°. The expedition proceeded from fort Brady, at the entrance of lake Superior from lake Huron, along the southern border of lake Superior to Fon de Lac, its south-western extremity; thence up the river St. Louis, a water of the lake, to its source. From thence, by a portage of six miles, they reached the waters of the Mississippi. The region traversed by this expedition, was the high table land, dividing the waters of the St. Lawrence from those of the gulf of Mexico, between 44 and 48° of north latitude; it is described as a poor, swampy, barren country, to the northward of any permanent American settlements.

The North American fur company have a number of trading establisnments in this region. The Indians are few in number, in a miserable condition, and rapidly destroying their game, their only means of subsistence, for the sake of obtaining peltry for the fur company. The expedition were directed to explore the southern coast of lake Superior; they found it to be of the same general character with the other lands in this north-west region, and but little of it fit for cultivation. They also made search for the copper mines with which this region is said to abound. They found no appearance of copper or copper ore, except the celebrated copper rock, which is forty-four miles from the lake, up a river called the Ontonagon. They judged the rock to contain a solid mass of twenty cubic feet, and to weigh about five tons. They obtained some specimens, which appeared to be copper almost pure.

In latitude 39°, the Mississippi receives, or rather joins, the Missouri, the latter being the largest stream coming from the eastern base of the Rocky mountains. In latitude 34° it receives the Arkansas, and in 31° the Red river, both large streams from the west. From the east, a little above its junction with the Missouri, the Mississippi receives the Illinois, and in latitude 37°, the Ohio.

VALLEY OF THE MISSISSIPPI. The country watered by the Mississippi and its tributaries, is called the valley of the Mississippi, and is bounded on the south by the gulf of Mexico, on the west by the Rocky mountains, dividing the waters of the Pacific from the Atlantic ocean; on the north by the table lands which

separate its waters from those of the upper lakes; and on the east by the Alleghany ridge. From Olean, the highest point of boat navigation on the Alleghany river, a branch of the Ohio, to the highest point of boat navigation on the Mississippi, by the course of the rivers, is five thousand miles. From the extreme point of boat navigation on the Tennessee river on the east, and of the Arkansas and Red rivers on the west, is a navigation of three thousand miles, and directly up the Mississippi, of nearly two thousand.

The extent of this valley, from the sources of the Alleghany, to the head waters of the Missouri, in a direct line, is nearly two thousand miles; and from the mouth of the Mississippi to its source, about one thousand. No other river valley on the globe will compare in size, in richness, and variety of soil, in salubrity of climate, and in its general adaptation to the support and comfort of man. It was once the object of Aaron Burr's ambition to establish an independent empire here, of which he himself was to be the head.

From a geographical view of this valley, it is evident that the free navigation of the river is indispensable to the United States. From 1783 to 1803, Spain was the occupant of a small territory embracing both banks of the river at its mouth, and denied the right of the United States to the navigation of the river through her territory. The American claim rested on two grounds; first that the river was a great highway to the ocean, evidently designed by the author of nature, for the use of all the inhabitants on its waters, as well those above as below; that its common use would be mutually beneficial, and injurious to neither. Secondly, that in the year 1763, France, then the proprietor of the territory now claimed by Spain, granted the free navigation of the river to Great Britain, then the proprietor of the upper country now owned by the United States; and that, in 1783, Great Britain granted this right to the United States by express stipulation, and as an appendage to the ceded territory. This subject remained a matter of controversy, and of frequent negotiation between Spain and the United States, until 1795, Spain frequently declaring that she would never suffer any other power to pass through her territory. At a favorable moment in that year, a treaty was concluded, which granted to the United States the free navigation of the river, and a place of deposit at New Orleans, without which the right could not be beneficially enjoyed. In 1802, this right of deposit was suddenly, and without any previous notice, withheld. Soon afterwards the territory of Louisiana passed into the hands of France, and in 1803, was purchased by the United States, and all controversy on the subject put to rest.

Louisiana. It was one condition of the treaty by which Louisiana was purchased, that, as soon as it could conveniently

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be done, it should be incorporated into one or more states, and admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the others. In 1812, southern Louisiana, embracing the whole territory south of 33° of latitude, was erected into a State and admitted into the Union. It contains 48,000 square miles, and a population of 352,411, of which 168,452 are slaves, and 25,502 free colored. The whole population averages seven to the square mile. Its militia are 14,808.

ITS LAWS. Louisiana having at different times been a province of France, and of Spain, and at one time a territory, and then a member of the United States, had a mixed and unintelligible code of laws in different languages. In 1822, Mr. Livingston, the late envoy to France, a distinguished jurist, who removed from the city of New York to New Orleans soon after the purchase of the territory, and Derbigny, and Moreau Lislet, two lawyers of eminence at New Orleans, were appointed by the legislature to revise and amend the civil code, and to add a system of commercial law, and a code of practice. The system was prepared principally by Mr. Livingston, and adopted as the law of Louisiana, in 1824. Mr. Livingston also, under an appointment of the legislature, has digested a penal code, which has been adopted with little variation.

NEW ORLEANS. New Orleans, the political and commercial capital of the state, is situated on the east bank of the Mississippi, one hundred miles from its mouth, in latitude 30°. It is the grand commercial emporium of the west. The Mississippi and its tributaries have an extent above the city of upwards of ten thousand miles of steam boat navigation, passing through the richest soil and finest climates. Its communication with the ocean is easy. The Mississippi and its principal branches are admirably adapted to steam boat navigation; and the use of steam boats for towing ships from the sea, now renders it unnecessary to wait for wind or tide to bring them to the city. New Orleans proper contains a population of 83,971 and the suburbs 18,222, making a total of 102,193.

PURCHASE OF THE TERRITORY. The purchase of Louisiana, and making it into States, to be admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the original members, presented new and important questions, which were fully discussed in Congress, on the bill for the admission of Louisiana. Neither the convention who formed, or the people who adopted the federal constitution, ever entertained the idea of extending it beyond the limits of the United States, as they then existed, or of taking into a political partnership, any foreign nation, territory, or people. Its preamble excludes the idea. "We the people of the United States, to secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves, and our

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posterity, do ordain and establish this constitution for the United States of America." Terms applicable only to their then existing limits. The constitution does, indeed, provide for the admission of new states into the Union, embracing those which might be formed from its vacant territory, from the division of a state, or the junction of parts of different states. Had the proposition been made in the convention, to vest Congress with the power of taking in other states or nations as equal partners, into the federal compact, with equal powers to regulate its destinies, there can be but little doubt of the result. Such a proposition would have formed a powerful, and probably a decisive objection to its adoption.

Several important considerations led to this overleaping of the constitution by those who had always advocated a strict and limited construction.

First, the ambition common to all natious to extend their jurisdiction and territory, and thereby increase their power. Secondly, the immense value to the Union of securing the free navigation of the Mississippi, accompanied with a convenient place of deposit at its mouth, where goods descending the river in boats, might be transhipped in sea vessels. Thirdly, the time when the purchase was made, was the only opportune one which would probably ever offer for its peaceable acquisition. The country had then just passed into the hands of France. She had a powerful armament prepared to take possession, which was impeded only by a superior British fleet. Under these circumstances, France was willing to sell a country which she had wrested from Spain, but which she was unable to occupy, for a large sum indeed, but one much less than it would have cost to gain it by a successful war. Under these circumstances, and with these views, the treaty of the 14th of April, 1803, by which Louisiana was acquired, was ratified by the Senate, and the appropriations necessary to carry it into effect, made by large majorities of both houses, with little discussion regarding its constitutionality.

The division of the territory into a convenient number of states, and their admission into the Union when their population should warrant it, on an equal footing with the original states, followed of course, having been provided for in the treaty of cession.

EDUCATION. In forming the state of Louisiana, Congress were as liberal in providing for the education of its citizens, as they had been when forming new states from their original territory. Indeed, it seemed to be the object to make the people of Louisiana forget that they were ever in a colonial and dependent state. Forty-six thousand acres of land were granted for a college, and one thirty-sixth part of each township to its inhabitants for the use of schools.

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In 1827, the legislature granted to each parish at the rate of $2,62½ cents for each voter, to be appropriated to the education of poor children, in consequence of which, $40,000 have been annually applied to that purpose. The legislature at the session of 1835, granted to three literary institutions, $363,755, viz. $48,775 to the college of Jefferson, and $15,000 annually to the same college for the period of ten yeass; also $15,000 annually to Louisiana college and Franklin college.

BOUNDARIES. The boundaries of the territory under the name of Louisiana while occupied by France and Spain were never defined. Previous to the war of 1756, or the old French war, as it was called in the colonies, France claimed, under this name, a region bounding on the gulf of Mexico, from Pensacola east, to Rio del Norte on the west, including most of the province of west Florida, and the whole of Texas, and extending from the Alleghany mountains to the Pacific ocean. In 1762, France ceded to Spain the territory of Louisiana. As between them no boundaries were necessary, as what was not comprehended under the name of Louisiana, Spain held as belonging to Mexico, or the Floridas. By the peace of 1763, terminating the war of 1756, it was agreed that the English colonies extended westward to, and were bounded by, the Mississippi. In 1801, Spain retroceded Louisiana to France, and in 1803, France sold it to the United States, with the boundaries which it originally had, and which it ought to have had while it was a colony of France. Those boundaries never having been specially defined, they became the subject of controversy and negotiation at different times between Spain and the United States, from the period of its cession to 1821, when the subject of its eastern boundary was put at rest by the cession of the adjoining Florida territory to the United States. Its western and southern boundaries were thus defined; to begin at the mouth of the Sabine river on the gulf of Mexico, in about the latitude of 30°, and extending thence up the Sabine, and in a north-westerly direction to the parallel of 42°, and in that latitude to the Pacific ocean, leaving the whole province of Texas, which France always claimed as a part of Louisiana, to Spain, as an appendage to Mexico.

Three states have already been made from this territory. In 1803, the whole population of the Louisiana territory was less than 60,000, and their condition is thus described in a letter from governor Clairborn to the Secretary of State, on taking possession.

"I have found it a vain labor to attempt to renovate the old government; it has left the country in almost inextricable confusion; many of the causes have been depending in court twenty years, and corruption has put a seal upon them. I found in gaol almost one hundred prisoners, some of whom had been confined on suspicion only, from two to thirteen years, without a trial.

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"The merchants and planters in this place live in a style of ease and affluence, but are deplorably destitute of information. Such has been their mode of life, and the abject state in which their government has placed them, that they are utterly averse to taking any share in the public concerns. A profound ignorance pervades them all. Not one in fifty can understand the English language. The trial by jury, that inestimable right enjoyed by the American people, would at present be a great grievance to them; they could not be made acquainted with it in fifty years. The principles of an elective government they cannot comprehend. A representative system would only bewilder them."

Allowing for some coloring in the governor's description, a comparison of what the city and province was when it passed into the hands of the United States, with its present condition, is the best practical commentary upon the American institutions.

TENNESSEE. The state of Tennessee was originally the western territory of North Carolina, bordering on the Mississippi river. From 1784 to 1789, the few inhabitants then settled in the district, attempted to form themselves into a separate community by the name of the state of Franklin. In 1790, North Carolina ceded the territory to the United States, and Congress immediately established a government over it, under the name of the territory south of the Ohio, on the same principles as that of the Northwest.

In 1796, Tennessee formed a state constitution, and was admitted into the Union, constituting the sixteenth state. On the third Monday in May, 1834, a convention met at Nashville, "for the purpose of revising and amending the constitution," and the constitution as amended by the convention was ratified by the people in March, 1835. Tennessee contains 40,000 square miles of territory, and 829,210 inhabitants, of which 183,059 are slaves, and 5,524 free colored. Population twenty to the square mile. Militia, 71,252.

ITS CONSTITUTION. The constitution of Tennessee provides that the governor, senators, and house of representatives, should be chosen biennially, and that the general assembly should meet once in two years. The number of representatives is to be apportioned among the several counties according to the number of voters, and cannot exceed seventy-five until the population shall be a million and a half, and can never afterwards exceed ninety-nine. The number of senators is to be apportioned on the same principle, and cannot exceed one third the number of representatives. "Every free white man of the age of twenty-one years, being a citizen of the United States, and a citizen of the county wherein he may offer his vote, six month-

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next preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for all officers."

The governor is not eligible for more than six years in any term of eight. Ministers of the gospel are not eligible to a seat in either house of the legislature, neither can any person hold any civil office who denies the being of a God, or a future state of reward and punishment. Lotteries are prohibited; and persons who may be concerned in duels are disqualified for holding office in the state.

EDUCATION. There are five collegiate institutions in the state, one at Greenville, founded in 1794; number of students, forty-three. One at Washington, founded in 1794; number of students, forty. One at Nashville, founded in 1806; number of students, one hundred. One at Knoxville, founded in 1807; number of students, fifty-six. And one near Columbia, founded in 1830; number of students, one hundred. The legislature by various enactments have provided a school fund, the interest of which is to be applied to the support of common schools. The fund is invested in public stocks, and in 1839 amounted to eight hundred and thirty-five thousand dollars.

DIVISION INTO EASTERN AND WESTERN. Tennessee is divided into eastern and western sections by the Cumberland mountains; the western enjoys an easy communication with the ocean in common with the other states of the west, by means of the Mississippi. This is rendered circuitous and difficult to East Tennessee, by means of those mountains. Its approaches to navigable water are among the most difficult of any in the United States. The only one that seems practicable, is, by a canal uniting the waters of the Tennessee river at its southern bend, with those of the Alabama, and in this way opening a communication with Mobile.

Tennessee has four banks; capital, $6,488,192.

KENTUCKY. Kentucky borders on the Ohio on the north, a distance of six hundred and fifty miles, including the windings of the river. It contains 42,000 square miles, and 779,828 inhabitants, of which 182,258 are slaves, and 7,317 free colored. Population, eighteen to the square mile. Militia, 82,335

Kentucky was originally west of Virginia. In 1789, the inhabitants of that district, with the consent of the parent state, held a convention at Frankfort, and formed a state constitution with the usual distribution of powers. The representatives are chosen annually; the senate once in four years, with a provision for a yearly renewal of one fourth. The governor is chosen by the people, for four years, and is ineligible for the succeeding seven. The appropriate duty of appointments to office is assigned to him. He has also what can scarcely be called a qual-

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ified negative upon the acts of the legislature. They are to be presented for his approbation; if he disapproves, he is required to return them with his reasons; if on re-consideration, they are passed by each house, by majorities of the whole number of members elected they become laws, notwithstanding his objections. The judges hold their offices during good behavior.

EDUCATION. The most prominent literary institution, is the Transylvania University, established at Lexington, in 1798; number of undergraduate students, one hundred and five; medical, two hundred and seventy-one; law, seventy five. The principal denominations of Christians have each a college under their particular directions; the presbyterians, one called Centre college, at Danville, founded in 1822; number of students, sixty-six; Cumberland college, at Princeton, founded in 1825; number of students, seventy-two; and Bacon college, at Harrodsburg, founded in 1836, number of students two hundred and three; the methodists, one at Augusta, founded in 1822; number of students, seventy-five; the baptists, one at Georgetown, founded in 1830; number of students, one hundred and fifteen; and the Roman Catholics, one called St. Joseph's, at Bardston, founded in 1819; number of students, including those in the preparatory school, one hundred and thirty, and St. Mary's college, Marion county, founded in 1837; number of students, one hundred and ten. The most extenstve works for the manufacture of salt west of the Alleghany, are on the Kentucky river. They supply not only this state, but a considerable portion of Ohio and Tennessee.

DANIEL BOONE. The earliest and most fearless pioneer of the west, was Daniel Boone. In September, 1773, he, with his associates, consisting of his own, and five other families, and forty men, commenced the settlement of Kentucky. Being attacked by the Indians on their way, six of his men were slain, their cattle dispersed, and the company obliged to return to the settlement on Clinch river, forty miles in rear of the scene of action. About the same time a company from North Carolina, having formed a plan of settlement on the south side of Kentucky river, employed Boone to purchase a tract of land for the purpose. Having effected it, he made a road from Holston, to Kentucky river, in doing which, he had frequent skirmishes with the Indians, in which he lost four men killed, and five wounded. In 1775, he built a fort at Salt spring, on the south side of Kentucky river, near the present site of Boonsborough, consisting of a block house, and several cabins enclosed within a palisado. In this fostress, he sustained two sieges from the Indians, and repulsed them. Early in 1778, he was taken prisoner, while hunting with a small party, and carried to Detroit. He was there treated with kindness by the British commandant,

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who offered the Indians £100 for their prisoner, that he might liberate him on parole. This was refused, and his conquerors adopted him into their tribe, and took him back to Chilicothe, from whence he made his escape, and arrived at Boonsborough on the 20th of June, having traversed 160 miles of wilderness, with little sustenance, in four days. On the 8th of August following, his fortress was attacked by a party of 450 Indians, conducted by a Canadian Frenchman. On a summons to surrender, he replied that his fort would be defended as long as there was a man alive. The garrison consisted of fifty men. The enemy then resorted to treachery to obtain what they could not do by force. They pretended a willingness to treat; requesting that nine of the principal men might come out and treat with them, promising so favorable terms, that the invitation was accepted. After articles had been agreed on, Boone and his companions were told that it was customary on such occasion, for two Indians to take each white man by the hand, in token of friendship. This was unsuspectingly agreed to, and two Indians approached each of the nine, and taking their proffered hands, grappled them with the purpose of making them prisoners. The object being perceived, Boone and his party succeeded in extricating themselves, and made good their retreat into the fort under a heavy fire. An attack immediately commenced, and was continued at intervals until the 20th, when the seige was abandoned. This was the last attack on Boonsborough.

In October, as Boone and his brother were returning from the Blue Licks, they were surprised by a party of Indians, and his brother slain; Danial escaped, after being closely pursued four miles. In 1782, the Indian depredations increasing to a great extent, Boone, with some militia officers, collected a party of two hundred men, and went in pursuit of a large body of Indians, collected at a bend on the main fork of Licking river, forty miles from Lexington. Boone and his company overtook them on the 19th of August, but finding their own force much inferior to the Indians, returned without venturing an attack. General Clark, then at the falls of the Ohio, Louisville, collected a considerable body of men, and, accompanied by Boone, went in pursuit of the Indians, and drove them off.

This sketch of Boone's achievments in the first settlement of Kentucky, is a sample of the daring course of the pioneers, and of what they have had to suffer from the Indians. Boone remained in Kentucky until 1798, when the surrounding population becoming too numerous to suit his taste, he removed to upper Louisiana, and having obtained a grant of two thousand acres of land, from the Spanish authorities, commenced a settlement at Charottee, on the Missouri river, a considerable distance beyond any inhabited part of the country. He remained in this

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region until September, 1822, when he died, at the age of eighty five.

Louisville, at the falls of the Ohio, is the principal commercial town in Kentucky, and contains 21,210 inhabitants. The Louisville and Portland canal, around the falls of the Ohio, is two miles in length, calculated to pass steamboats of the largest class on the river, overcoming a fall of twenty-four feet by the three locks. Lexington is the next considerable town, with a population of 6997. Frankfort, on the Kentucky river, is the seat of government, and has a population of 1917 The Lexington and Ohio rail road has been completed from Lexington to Frankfort. A number of turnpike companies have been incorporated, the state having, generally, taken half the stock. Kentucky has expended over three millions dollars on internal improvements; over one million on improving river navigation, nearly two millions on turnpike roads and bridges, and about two hundred thousand dollars on the Lexington and Ohio rail road.

There are five banks in Kentucky. In July, 1834, the legislature chartered a bank, with a capital of $5,000,000, and with six branches; it went into operation in April, 1835. The northern bank of Kentucky, at Lexington, was incorporated in 1335, with four branches. Capital, $3,000,000.

Wheat, Indian corn, tobacco, and hemp, are the staple productions. The greater part of the surplus grain is consumed for fattening cattle and swine, which are driven to the neighboring states for a market.

OHIO. The state of Ohio lies directly north of Kentucky, from which it is separated by the Ohio river, which bounds the state on the south and south-east, including its various windings, a distance of four hundred and thirty-six miles. The state is nearly a square of two hundred and twenty miles, but lake Erie projects so far into its northern border, and the river takes off so much of the southern, that its area is computed to be equal only to two hundred miles square. Population, 1,519,467, of which 17,342 only are colored, being one to ninety whites. Militia, 180,258.

NORTH-WEST TERRITORY. The territory north-west of the Ohio river, including this state, Indiana and Illinois, was comprehended in the original grant to Virginia; which, under the name of north and south Virginia, comprehended the largest and most valuable portion of the British American colonies. In 1786, Virginia ceded this territory to the United States, with a provision that there should be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude except for crimes. At this period there was no white settlements in any part of the territory, except one or two small villages of Canadian French near its western border. The first

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permanent settlement within the limits of this state was commenced at the mouth of the Muskingum river, by forty-seven persons, under the direction of Col. Israel Putnam, April 7th, 1788. The first territorial legislature assembled at Cincinnati, in September, 1799. In November, 1802, a convention met in Chilicothe, and formed a state constitution, and at the succeeding congress, Ohio was admitted into the Union, forming the seventeenth state. Notwithstanding the late period at which its settlements commenced, Ohio, in 1830, had become the third state in the Union, as to its white population and number of militia; New York and Pennsylvania only exceeding it.

CONSTITUTION OF OHIO. Its constitution prohibits slavery. It distributes the powers of government in terms, in the usual manner, but reserves to the legislature the power of appointment. The judges are chosen by joint ballot, and hold their offices for seven years, and are re eligible. The governor is chosen by a plurality of votes by the people, and holds his office for two years. The house of representatives are chosen annually and the senate biennially. The legislature meet annually at Columbus, on the first Monday in December.

EDUCATION. There are ten colleges in the state. The university of Ohio, founded at Athens in 1821; number of students, 166. Miami university at Oxford, founded in 1824; number of

Kenyon College, Ohio.

students, one hundred and twenty-six. Western Reserve, at Hudson, founded in 1826; number of students, sixty-four. Ken-

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yon college, at Gambier, founded in 1828; number of students, fifty-five. Franklin college, founded in 1824, at New Athens; number of students, fifty. Granville college at Granville, founded in 1832. Marietta, at Marietta, founded in 1833; number of students, fifty. Oberlin Institute at Oberlin, founded in 1834. Cincinnati and Woodward colleges, both at Cincinnati

Nearly three hundred thousand dollars was distributed in 1841, to the several counties, for the support of common schools.

CANALS. Nearly in the centre of the state are the table lands which separate the waters of the Ohio river from those of lake Erie. The state has undertaken two important canals connecting these waters.

The Ohio canal commences at the mouth of the Cuyahoga river, at Cleveland, follows the valley of the river nearly to its source, thence across the table lands to the valley of the Sciota, and along that valley to its entrance into the Ohio at Portsmouth. The length of the main line is three hundred and six miles, and of navigable feeders, fifteen; the lockage 1185 feet.

The Miami canal extends from Cincinnati to the Maumee river, near the head of lake Erie. Length of the main line, two hundred and sixty-five miles, and of the feeders, twenty-five. Lockage, eight hundred and eighty nine feet. Considering that Ohio is a new state, almost entirely settled within the last forty years, its exertions in internal improvements are without a parallel. They have proceeded from a liberal and enlightened policy. Without their aid, wheat, the great staple of Ohio, could not find a market. With their assistance, and that of the Erie canal, much of it now reaches the New England seaboard. Several canals are now in progress in Ohio.

The Mad river and Sandusky city rail road from Tiffin to Sandusky city, is thirty-six miles, and the Ohio rail road from Manhatten to the same place, is forty miles.

Columbus, the seat of government, is pleasantly situated on the Sciota river, near the centre of the state. Population, 6048. Cincinnati, on the Ohio river, at the southwest corner of the state, is the largest and most commercial town of the west. It is the great mart for the productions of the state, and of a considerable portion of Indiana, seeking a market at New Orleans. Population, 46,338. Cleveland is a flourishing town, and the principal port on lake Erie. Population, 6071. The annual amount of wheat and flour received at this place by the canal, is about two million bushels of the former, and five hundred thousand barrels of the latter.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON was born on the 9th day of February, 1773, at Berkley, on the James river, about twenty-five miles below Richmond, Virginia. He was the third and

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youngest son of Benjamin Harrison, one of the signers of the declaration of independence.

After finishing his collegiate course at Hampden Sydney college, he commenced the study of medicine, but entertaining a strong desire to join the army, who were then engaged in suppressing Indian hostilities, he received an ensign's commission from General Washington, in the first regiment of artillery, then stationed at fort Washington.

In 1792 he was promoted to a lieutenancy. In 1794 Wayne's army were successful in a general action with the hostile Indians; Harrison acted as one of his aids, and in the official report of Gen. Wayne, among the officers favorably noticed are the "faithful and gallant aids-de-camp, Capt. De Butts and T. Lewis, and Lieutenant Harrison." In 1795, Harrison was promoted to a captaincy, still retaining his rank as aid to Gen. Wayne, and placed in command of fort Washington; he was then twenty-two years of age.

In 1797, the subject of this sketch left the army and received his first civil appointment as Secretary of the North Western Territory; in the following year he was elected delegate to Congress, and was mainly instrumental in procuring the passage of a bill reducing the size of land tracts. About this time the North Western Territory was divided into two portions, one called Ohio, and the other Indiana; of the latter, Harrison was appointed Governor.

The Indians having committed aggressions on our frontier, Harrison received orders to march against them, which he did with an army of over nine hundred men, three hundred and fifty of whom were United States troops, and the remainder volunteers; they encamped about three fourths of a mile from Tippecanoe, and on the night of the 6th of November, 1811, were attacked by the Indians; after an engagement of several hours the Indians retreated; neither the number or loss of the savages could be correctly ascertained; thirty-eight warriors were left dead on the field, and others only lived to reach the town. The Americans had fifty killed, and nearly one hundred wounded.

The United States having declared war against Great Britain, Harrison was appointed Major General by brevet, by Governor Scott, of Kentucky, and soon after received the commission of Brigadier General in the United States army. General Harrison successfully defended fort Meigs, against the British and Indians in 1813; he was also in command at the battle of the Thames, where the British army was captured, six hundred prisoners being taken; the hostile force numbered eight hundred and forty-five regulars and two thousand Indians; the American army consisting mostly of militia, numbered less than twenty five hundred. The British had eighteen killed and twenty-six wounded; the American loss was about the same.

In 1814 General Harrison being dissatisfied with the conduct

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of the Secretary of War, resigned his command in the army; in the same year he was appointed with Gov. Shelby, and Gen. Cass, to treat with the Indians, and in 1815, after the peace, he was placed at the head of another commission; under both these appointments treaties were concluded, the first at Greenville, the other at Detroit. In 1816 he was elected a representative in Congress from the state of Ohio, and in 1818 reported his celebrated militia bill, which, like all other plans for a reorganization of the militia, was defeated.

In 1819 General Harrison was elected a member of the senate of Ohio, where he served two years; during this time he was chosen one of the electors for President and Vice President, and voted for James Monroe and Daniel D. Tompkins; being subsequently chosen an elector, he voted for Henry Clay. While in the Ohio senate, General Harrison went with the minority of twelve senators who voted to retain the clause in the bill for the punishment of certain offences, which provided that persons fined for criminal offences should be apprenticed to respectable citizens, for sufficient sums to pay the fines; in a letter written in explanation of this vote, General Harrison states that he considered it part of the general system of criminal law, and "the most mild and humane mode of dealing with the offenders for whose cases it was intended."

In 1822, General Harrison was a candidate for Congress, but lost his election in consequenee of having voted against the Missouri restriction, and in 1824 was elected to the United States senate. In 1828 he was appointed minister to Colombia, and was recalled by the new administration in 1829. He then retired to his farm, where he remained until called to the national seat of government, to occupy the executive chair. In 1836 he was one of the unsuccessful candidates for the Presidency in opposition to Martin Van Buren; in this election he received seventy-two votes. On the 4th of December, 1839, he was nominated by the Whig National Convention as their candidate for the Presidency; he was elected by a large majority, and on the 4th of March, 1841, was inaugurated President of the United States.

General Harrison occupied the distinguished station to which he was elected, but a short period; having been seized with the bilious pleurisy, he died after a short illness, on the 4th of April, precisely one month after his inauguration.

Every demonstration of respect was paid to the memory of the chief magistrate of the Union, and in the cities and large towns a day was set aside on which funeral processions marched in testimony of respect to the deceased, and orations were delivered on his character and services.

The framers of the constitution had provided for the melancholy contingency of the death of a President; that instrument declaring, that "In case of the removal of the President from

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office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President;" and in pursuance of this provision, the Hon. John Tyler now executes the powers, and performs the duties of President of the United States.

INDIANA. Next to the west of Ohio is the state of Indiana, bordering southerly on the Ohio river, and extending north to lake Michigan, two hundred and seventy miles, and containing 36,000 square miles. Population, 685,866, of whom 7165 are colored. Militia, 53,913. This state has almost entirely grown up within the present century. In the year 1800, the whole population, including Illinois, was short of 5000. In that year a territorial government was formed for this population, distinct from Ohio. In 1816, a state constitution was formed, and Indiana admitted into the Union, being the twentieth state. Its constitution provides for a general assembly, to consist of a senate of twenty-three members, chosen for three years, with a provision for the renewal of one third annually; and of a house of representatives chosen annually. The judges of the supreme court are appointed by the governor, with the consent of the senate, and hold their offices for the term of seven years. The presidents of the circuit courts are chosen by joint ballot of both houses of the legislature, and their associates by the people.

The constitution provides, that there shall not be established or incorporated in the state, any bank or banking company, or monied institution, for the purpose of issuing bills of credit, or bills payable to order or bearer, with a saving clause preserving the rights of the bank of Vincennes, and the Farmers and Mechanics bank of Indiana, established at Madison under the territorial government, and allowing the legislature to establish a state bank with branches. The general assembly meets annually at Indianapolis.

One thirty-sixth part of each township is granted by Congress to its inhabitants, for the support of schools, and several reservations are made for a college. One has been established at Bloomington; number of students, fifty-nine; one at South Hanover, comprising a theological and a literary department; number of students, one hundred and twenty; and one at Wabash; number of students, one hundred. The constitution directs, "that it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a state university, wherein tuition shall be gratis, and equally open to all."

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. The principal river of Indiana is the Wabash, on its western border; most of the waters of the

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state flow into the Ohio. Some in its northeastern section find their outlet by the Maumee river in lake Erie. A canal is projected from the boatable waters of the Wabash, to lake Erie, following the course of the Maumee valley to the lake. Congress have granted alternate sections of six hundred and forty acres each, of the public lands lying on this route, to the state, to be appropriated to the construction of this canal. By this grant, a great public object, it is expected, will be obtained, and the government more than indemnified by the increased value of the reserved sections.

The United States, in the character of a great land holder in the west, are deeply interested in every work of internal improvement, by which access to, and intercourse with the country is facilitated.

At the session of the legislature in 1832, eight joint stock rail road companies were incorporated, with an aggregate capital of $4,000,000, to construct rail roads from the Ohio river to Indianapolis, and to different points of the Wabash.

An "internal improvement bill" was passed by the legislature in 1836, which provides for a loan of ten millions of dollars, on the credit of the state, to be expended under the direction of the board of internal improvement, for the construction of certain rail roads and canals. The operations of the board of internal improvement have lately been partially suspended.

Indianapolis is the seat of government. Population, 2692. Vincennes is an ancient French settlement, commenced in 1735, on the Wabash, one hundred and fifty miles from its mouth, and is now the largest town in the state. Contiguous to the village is an extensive prairie, five thousand acres of which are cultivated in a common field. The name, and kind of land to which it is appropriate, is peculiar to the west. Prairies are of two kinds, river and upland; the former differ little from what are usually called bottom lands. The latter are from fifty to one hundred feet more elevated. They are more numerous, and vary in size from a small field to an extent as far as the eye can reach, and usually bounded by forests. The soil is fertile, varying in depth from two to five feet, and the growth luxuriant.

Indiana has one bank with twelve branches; capital two and a half millions.

Illinois. Illinois bounds on Indiana east, on the Ohio river south, and the Mississippi west, extending from latitude 37 to 42° 30′ north, and containing 58,000 square miles. In addition to the three great rivers, the Wabash, the Ohio, and the Mississippi, by which the state is bordered on three sides, the Illinois river rises near the north-eastern border, and traverses the state diagonally to its junction with the Mississippi, nearly opposite the Missouri, its head waters interlocking with the Chicago, which enters into lake Michigan. The country is so level and

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marshy near the sources of these rivers, that in a wet season, boats pass from one to the other.

A canal is projected from boat navigation on the Illinois to the head of lake Michigan, near the outlet of the Chicago. Congress have appropriated alternate sections of the public lands on this route, to the purposes of the canal, on the same principles as in Indiana, and the like results are expected.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. A law was passed in 1837, to establish and maintain a general system of internal improvement in this state. It establishes a board of fund commissioners, consisting of three members, and a board of commissioners of public works, consisting of seven members. This latter board are authorized to superintend and construct all works of internal improvement, with the exception of the Illinois and Michigan canal; and the board of fund commissioners are authorized to contract for loans not exceeding $8,000,000. A number of appropriations have been made for the improvement of the navigation of rivers, for the great western mail route, and for the construction of several rail roads. Nearly three millions of dollars have been expended on public works. The construction of the rail roads is now mostly suspended. A rail road is completed from Meredosia on Illinois river, to Jacksonville. A canal from Illinois river to lake Michigan, a distance of ninety-six miles, is in the course of construction.

CUMBERLAND ROAD. The Cumberland road is designed to pass through the states of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, to St. Louis on the Mississippi. This road commences at Cumberland, taking its name from the place of its beginning, a village at the eastern base of the Alleghany, in the northwestern section of Maryland, crosses a part of Pennsylvania and Virginia, and strikes the Ohio at Wheeling. It has thus far been made by the United States, at an expense of $1,800,000. It has been surveyed from thence to the Mississippi, a distance according to the course of the road, of 600 miles. Some portions of this section have also been made. The fund originally intended to complete this work, was the two fifths of the five per cent. reserved out of the net avails of the sale of the public lands in the west, for the purpose of making roads leading to and through the new states. This fund has proved to be inadequate, and appropriations have been made in aid of it, at various times, from the treasury. Its primary object is to facilitate the communication between the central portions of the Western States, and the city of Washington. The commencement of the road is near the head waters of the Potomac, 150 miles westward of Baltimore, and about the same distance east of Wheeling.

The population of Illinois in the year 1800, exclusive of Indians, consisted of 215 souls, the remnant of an old French

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settlement at Kaskaskia. In 1820, the population had increased, principally by emigration from the east, to 55,211; in 1830, it amounted to 157,445, including 2384 colored. Its present population, according to the census of 1840, is 476,183. The three states northwest of the Ohio, and east of the Mississippi, from which slavery is excluded by compact, have been careful to discourage free negro population. They do not exceed one colored to 100 white inhabitants. Labor and domestic service is principally done by free white persons, which gives to these states a physical power and consideration, in proportion to their numbers, greater than those in which the colored population are more numerous.

CONSTITUTION. The constitution of Illinois bears date August 26th, 1818, and the state was admitted into the Union at the succeeding congress. It prohibits the introduction of slaves. The legislature consists of a senate chosen for four years, with a provision for a renewal of one half biennially. The house of representatives are chosen for two years, and the legislature meet at Vandalia every second year next after the choice of representatives. The governor is chosen for four years, and is ineligible for the next term. Though called in the constitution the executive power, the principal appointments are reserved to the legislature. The judges are chosen by the general assembly in joint ballot, and hold their offices during good behavior.

EDUCATION. The usual grant of one section, or the thirty-sixth part of each township, is made for the support of common schools; and three per cent. of the net proceeds of all the public lands sold within the state, are appropriated for the encouragement of learning, one sixth part of which, together with a further grant of two townships, is appropriated to found a college. One has been established at Jacksonville, on the manual labor system, there being a farm of 220 acres of land, and three workshops attached to the institution. The college promises to be of great utility, bringing the means of a public education within the reach of persons of small property, and thereby greatly diffusing its benefits; number of students, forty-two. There are three other colleges, one at Upper Alton, Lebanon, and Macomb.

MAMMOTH. Two discoveries have been made in the eastern section of the Mississippi valley, which have excited much disquisition. One, the bones of an animal much larger than any now known, or of which there are any authentic accounts in the western continent, and larger than the elephant of the east. A skeleton of this animal, called the mammoth or mastodon, nearly perfect, has been collected and put together in the museum at Philadelphia. It measures eighteen feet in length, and eleven and a half in height.

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TUMULI. The other is the Tumuli, or large artificial mounds of earth, found in various places, which on being opened, appear to be extensive burying grounds, and to contain much greater numbers than the present condition of the Indians would seem to indicate, leading to the conclusion, that in times anterior to any historical records, the country was peopled by a numerous and civilized race. The questions to which these discoveries have given rise, are at what periods the mammoth existed, and what has been the cause of its extinction? Was the Mississippi valley ever inhabited by a numerous and civilized race? and at what periods? and what have been the causes of their extinction, dispersion, or degeneracy? There being no data on which to found satisfactory answers to these questions, every one is at liberty to indulge his own speculations.

Vandalia, on the Kaskaskia river, is the seat of government; a new, but a very flourishing town. Illinois has two banks, with several branches; capital, five and a half millions.

MISSOURI. The state of Missouri is bounded east by the Mississippi river, south by the territory of Arkansas, and west and north by an unsettled region called the Missouri territory. It contains an area of sixty thousand square miles, and 383,702 inhabitants, six to a square mile. Of its population, 58,240 are slaves; and 1,574 free colored. The proportion is about one colored to six whites. Militia, 59,689.

This state was a part of the Louisiana purchase of 1803, and called upper Louisiana. At the time of the purchase there were two small French settlements in what now constitutes the state; one at St. Louis, on the Mississippi, near its junction with the Missouri; the other at St. Genevieve, also on the bank of the Mississippi, eighty miles below.

DEBATE ON SLAVERY. The admission of Missouri, occasioned a debate in Congress on the subject of slavery, which agitated that body, and the public, in a high degree. To a bill in the usual form providing for the admission of a new state, Mr. Roberts of Pennsylvania, in the Senate, moved an amendment providing that the further introduction of slavery into the new state, should be absolutely and irrevocably prohibited. This amendment arrayed the south against the north, the slave-holding against the non-slave-holding states, and called forth all the talents and zeal of the champions on both sides. After a discussion of some months, and after the speakers had exhausted all their eloquence, and Congress and the public all their patience, a compromise took place, by which slavery was to be allowed in Missouri, and in all the United States territory south of latitude 36° 40′, and prohibited north of that line, and west of the state of Missouri.

CONSTITUTION OF MISSOURI. The constitution of Missouri

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has few distinctive features. It prohibits its own legislature from interfering in the emancipation of slaves without the consent of their owners. It provides for the appointment of commissioners to fix a permanent seat of government, who in execution of their trust established it at Jefferson, near the junction of the Missouri and Osage rivers. The legislature meet once in two years. The house of representatives are chosen biennially, and the senate for four years, with a provision for the renewal of one half every second year. This provision in the constitution of Missouri is common, in its principle, with several other states, and with that of the United States, and is designed to give something of a permanence and stability of character to that body, and to preserve in it a portion of members acquainted by experience with the state policy. In this view it has a happy tendency to prevent inconsiderate legislation. The governor is chosen by the people for the term of four years, and is ineligible for the succeeding term. He has a negative upon the acts of the legislature, qualified in this manner; in case of his disapprobation, the bill must be sent back with his reasons, and unless passed by a majority of all the members elected to each house, it fails of becoming a law. The constitution prohibits the legislature from incorporating more than one bank, with a power of establishing branches not exceeding five, and with a capital not exceeding $5,000,000, one half of which the state is to have the right of subscribing. To this new state, Congress liberally extended the same grants of public lands for the purpose of education and internal improvement, as to the other states. Indeed, it seemed to be a favorite object to make no distinction between the original and purchased territory. The precedent having been established in the admission of Louisiana, the constitutional question was not raised in taking in another partner into the Union.

COLLEGES. Public education in Missouri is principally in the hands of Catholics. St. Mary's college, situated at the Barrens, in Perry county, was established in 1830; number of students, 124. Connected with the college is a theological school, at which young men are educated for the ministry, without any other compensation required of them, than some assistance in instructing the younger classes in the college. St. Louis University, founded in 1829, is pleasantly situated at an elevated point on the borders of the city, and is conducted by the fathers of the society of the Jesuits; students, 160. Marion college is a protestant institution, founded in 1831, at Marion city, and for a new institution, in a newly settled town, is in a flourishing condition. There are three other protestant colleges recently established, one at Columbia, one at St. Charles, and one at Fayette. There are several flourishing female academies under the direction of Catholic ladies; and a number of other academies

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have been incorporated. The General Government granted seventy-two sections of land for the purpose of establishing and supporting a university. It is to be called the University of Missouri, and to be erected at Columbia; the corner-stone was laid out the 4th of July, 1840. The legislature have set apart several funds for the support of common schools.

LEAD MINES. The lead mines in the southern section of the state, near the Ozark mountains, are very productive. The district most distinguished, which has been explored, is nearly one hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth; its central part is about seventy miles south-west of St. Louis. Upwards of five millions of pounds are annually smelted. Shot towers are erected at Herculaneum, and great quantities of lead and shot exported from that place and St. Genevieve, the principal marts for these articles.

MISSOURI RIVER. The great Missouri river traverses the state from its western border, in latitude 39° to its junction with the Mississippi, in nearly the same latitude. It takes its rise in the Rocky mountains, within a mile of the head waters of the Columbia river. It takes the name of Missouri near the base of the mountains, at the junction of three principal streams, named Jefferson, Madison, and Galatin. At the place where the river makes its escape from the Rocky mountains, it presents a scene of great sublimity and beauty. For a distance of about six miles, the rock rises perpendicularly twelve hundred feet from the water's edge. The river is compressed to the width of one hundred and fifty yards, where it rushes through these gates of the mountains. The whole length of the Missouri, as computed by Lewis and Clarke, is 3100 miles; to this may be added the distance from its junction with the Mississippi to the gulf of Mexico, 1300; making the whole course of its waters, 4400, the longest river known in the world. The most western military post of the United States, is at the Council Bluffs, on this river, in latitude 41°, and longitude 20° west from Washington, a considerable portion north-west of the western border of the state of Missouri. During the administration of Mr. Monroe, the secretary of war, Mr. Calhoun, sent a detachment a thousand miles further up the river, to the mouth of the Yellowstone, with a view of establishing a post at that place.

STEAM NAVIGATION. No one event in the history of human improvements is of so much consequence to the valley of the Mississippi, as the discovery of the powers of steam, and their application to the purposes of navigation. The current of the western waters is such as to prevent the ascending navigation by wind or oars, to any practicable extent. Its surplus productions might be floated down the stream to New Orleans, but if

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returns were sought in foreign merchandize, they must be obtained in the Atlantic cities, and transported at an immense expense, across the Alleghany, to the Ohio river. By the aid of steam, the requisite merchandize is transported from New Orleans almost to the doors of the consumers, with a delay and expense bearing no comparison with the former mode. For this great improvement, the world is indebted to the persevering ingenuity of Robert Fulton, a native of Pennsylvania. In 1803, under the patronage of Robert Livingston, the American minister at Paris, he built a boat on the Seine, which he succeeded in propelling by steam, but the machinery was so imperfect, that though the principle was established, it was not reduced to practice to any extent.

Mr. Fulton returned to New York in 1806, full in the belief that steam navigation might be successfully accomplished. With great labor and expense, he built a steamboat on the Hudson, and first navigated that river by steam in 1807. His first essays moved the boat only at the rate of about four miles an hour. Improvements were rapid, and the speed was soon doubled, and the application of steam to the purposes of navigation, in the course of a few years, become common in America and Europe. Mr. Fulton obtained a patent for the exclusive use of steam navigation on the waters of the state of New York, which was judged to be inoperative by the supreme court of the United States, on the ground that it was a regulation of commerce, belonging exclusively to the general government.

Jefferson on the south side of the Missouri river, about nine miles above the mouth of the Osage river, is the seat of government; it contains 1174 inhabitants. St. Louis is the principal seat of commerce, and the largest town west of the Mississippi river. Being situated near the junction of two great rivers, its natural advantages are very great, and its population has rapidly increased. It was founded in 1764, but remained an unimportant place during the Spanish and French collonial settlements. Since the accession of Louisiana to the confederacy, its favorable location as a commercial depot, has secured to it proper attention, and it is evidently destined to become a place of great importance. The population in 1830, was 6694, and in 1840, 16,469, showing an increase of nearly 150 per cent. in ten years.

ARKANSAS. South of the state of Missouri, is Arkansas, which, until the organization of the northern section into a state, formed a part of the Missouri Territory. Length from east to west, 250 miles, breadth, 220. That portion on which there are any white settlements, and which is embraced within the territorial government, extends about half the distance from the Mississsppi to the Mexican boundary. It contains about 40,000 square miles, and 97,574 inhabitants, of whom 19,905 are slaves.

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and 465 free colored. This population has almost entirely risen up within this state since its connection with the United States, and is strictly American. In 1836 Arkansas was admitted into the Union. Arkansas has two banks.

ITS CONSTITUTION. Every white male citizen of the United States who has been a citizen of the state for six months, is deemed a qualified elector.

The legislature meet biennially; members of the house of representatives are chosen for two years, and members of the senate for four years. All elections are *viva voce*.

The governor holds his office four years, and is only eligible eight, in any period of twelve years. The judges of the supreme and circuit courts are chosen by the general assembly, the supreme court judges for eight, and those of the circuit court for four years. The justices of the peace are elected by the people, and their term of office is two years. Judges of the county court are chosen by justices of the peace.

The person of a debtor cannot be imprisoned, except on strong presumption of fraud. No lotteries can be established, nor the sale of tickets allowed. The legislature may establish one state bank, with branches, and one banking institution to further the agricultural interests of the country.

The legislature has no power to free slaves without their owners' consent; and in the prosecution of slaves for any crime, they are to have an impartial trial by jury. Any slave convicted of a capital offence, is to suffer the same degree of punishment as would be inflicted on a free white person; and courts of justice before whom slaves are tried, are required to assign them council for defence.

MICHIGAN. Michigan, for the purposes of jurisdiction, embraces the whole north-west territory of the United States, east of the Mississippi, and north of the states of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Population, 212,267.

Michigan proper is a peninsula, surrounded on three sides by the waters of the lakes, Michigan, Huron, and Erie, and bounded on the south by the northern limits of the states of Ohio and Indiana. It lies between 42° and 47° of north latitude. Its soil is represented as fertile, and of the same general character with the adjoining states of Ohio and Indiana, its climate mild for so high latitude.

There are nine banks in Michigan.

Detroit, the capital of this state, is the oldest settlement in the west, being an ancient French post, intended to connect Canada with Louisiana. It is situated in latitude 42°, near the southern border of the territory, on the river St. Clair, eighteen miles from lake Erie. It is a place of considerable and increasing business. Steamboats pass regularly from Detroit to Buffalo,

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and arrive and depart daily. This was one of the last of the British posts which was given up to the Americans in virtue of the treaty which terminated the war of the revolution. It was held till 1796. It is noted for being the place where an American army of twenty-five hundred men, in a fortified post, surrendered without firing a gun, to a British force of half the number, at the commencement of the war of 1812; a circumstance made the more remarkable when contrasted with the numerous instances of American valor, which the history of our country exhibits. Detroit contains 9102 inhabitants.

ITS CONSTITUTION The constitution of Michigan was formed by a convention in 1835, and it was admitted into the Union in January, 1837. The judges of the supreme court are to be appointed by the governor with the advice and consent of the senate, for seven years; judges of county court and probate, and associate judges of circuit courts, are to be elected by the people for the term of four years. Each township is authorized to elect four justices of the peace, who are to hold office four years.

Each white male citizen above the age of twenty-one years, who had resided six months next preceding any election, is entitled to vote at such election.

Slavery, lotteries, and the sale of tickets, are prohibited.

The governor shall nominate, and by and with advice and consent of the legislature, appoint a superintendent of public instruction, who shall hold his office two years. All proceeds of lands given to the state by the United States, for the support of schools, shall remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, together with the rent of such lands, shall be employed for the support of schools. The legislature shall provide for a system of common schools, by which a school shall be maintained at least three months in each year, and any school district neglecting to maintain such school, may be deprived of its equal proportion of the interest of the public fund.

EDUCATION. In compliance with the provisions of the constitution, the legislature, in 1837, passed "an act to provide for the organization and support of primary schools;" during the same session, the "university of Michigan" was founded; in addition to the ordinary collegiate, it embraces a law and medical department, and has several branches in different parts of the state. There is also a college at Marshall, and one near Detroit. Michigan has also a common school system, and a fund consisting of lands granted by Congress for the support of primary schools. These lands exceed one million acres in quantity.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS. Several rail roads and canals

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have been projected; but none are yet completed. Provision has also been made for the survey of several rivers, with a view to the improvement of their navigation.

MISSOURI TERRITORY. North and west of the state of Missouri, is a vast region, bounded on the east by the Mississippi, north by the British possessions, west by the Rocky mountains, and south and south-west by the Mexican territories, uninhabited, except by Indians. Its length is estimated at 900, and breadth, 800 miles. It lies between the parallels of 36° 30′, and 49° north latitude. This region was formerly styled the Missouri territory, that name, however, is now only applied to the northern part, the southern portion having been assigned to emigrating Indians, is called

THE INDIAN TERRITORY. The greater portion of the inhabitants of this region have emigrated from the states east of the Mississippi river. The principal tribes are the Creeks, Cherokees, Chickasas, and Choctaws. Besides these tribes, there are others, as the Osages, Pawnees, &c., who are in their primitive state. The emigrating Indians are promised an undisturbed possession, and protection from the hostilities of other tribes.

OREGON. Oregon is a name designating the territory of the United States west of the Rocky mountains, its eastern limit is bounded by those mountains, its southern by the parallel of the forty-second degree of north latitude, as agreed between Spain and the United States; and its western by the Pacific ocean. Its northern boundary is unsettled. By a convention with Russia in 1824, it was agreed that the subjects of that power should form no settlements south of the parallel of 54° north latitude. The United States claim the territory on the Pacific from latitude 42° to 54° north, on the ground of having obtained from Spain, by virtue of the treaty of 1821, all her claims north of latitude 42°, and by priority of discovery and occupation. The first discovery was by captain Gray, of Boston, who entered the mouth of Columbia river in 1791, and carried on some traffic with the Indians. In 1805, consequent upon the purchase of Louisiana, president Jefferson sent an exploring party under the command of Lewis and Clarke, who crossed the mountains, and followed the course of the Columbia river to its mouth. In 1811 a settlement was formed at that place, and called Astoria. This settlement was broken up by the British in the war of 1812, and abandoned. Since the war, the British deny the American right, and claim the country on the ground that some of their fur traders in the north have penetrated nearly to the Pacific ocean. By a convention between the British and American governments, made in 1818, and renewed in 1827, it was agreed that the country should be open to both parties, neither having the exclusive title or occupancy for the term of ten years.

ITS EXTENT. The territory from the mountains to the ocean is 600 miles in breadth, and admitting its extent, from the Mexican to the Russian boundary, is 800 miles in length. The Columbia river and its tributaries drain the central parts of this territory. The course of the river is in a westerly direction, and including the windings, is 1500 miles in length. It enters the ocean in latitude 46°; the tide flows up the river 180 miles, to which extent the river affords sloop navigation. The country, however, has been so imperfectly explored, that much uncertainty attends every description.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA. The district of Columbia is a territory of ten miles square, lying on both sides of the Potomac, 120 miles from its mouth, and 300 from the ocean, at the head of ship navigation. It was designated as the seat of the general government in 1790; and the jurisdiction ceded by Maryland and Virginia to the United States. It includes the city of Alexandria on the Virginia, and Georgetown and the city of Washington, on the Maryland side of the Potomac. At the time of the cession, the city of Washington was uninhabited, and congress having obtained the title to the soil from the proprietors, it was expected that the sale of such of the city lots as were not wanted for public purposes, would go far towards defraying the expenses of the public buildings. The aggregate population of the whole district is 43,712; of this population, 4,694 are slaves, and 8,361 free colored, leaving the white population in 1840, 30,657. The population of the city of Washington is 23,364.

United States Capitol, Washington.

The capitol is in latitude 28° 32′ north, and longitude 77° west from London. It is built on capitol square, an elevated ground at the head of Pennsylvania avenue; it is constructed of free stone, and composed of a centre and two wings. Whole length

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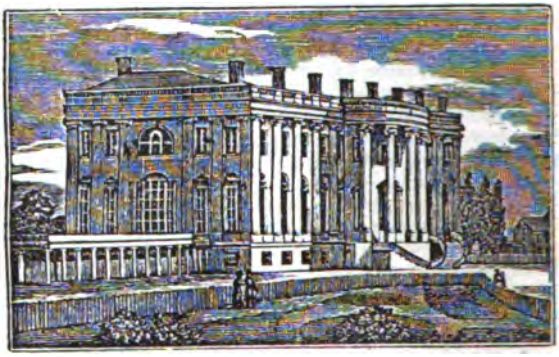
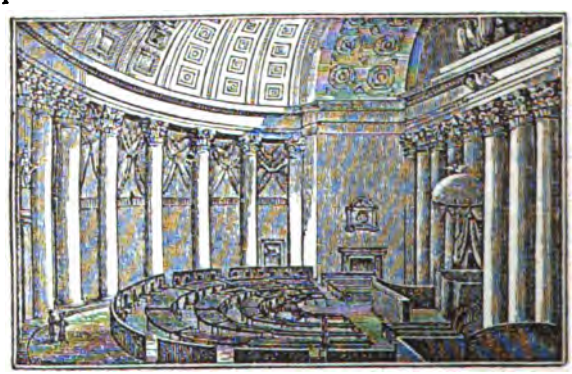
350 feet; depth of the wings, 121; height of the dome, 120 feet. The senate chamber is in the north wing, and is a semi-circle



President's House, Washington.

of seventy four feet in length, and forty-two in height. The representatives' chamber is in the south wing, and is also a



Interior of the House of Representatives.

semi-circle, of ninety-five feet in length, and sixty in height. The president's house is two stories high, built with a lofty basement, 180 feet long, by eighty-five wide. Cost, $350,000.

The establishment of this city and district as the seat of the Federal government, was a favorite object with General Washington. It was expected that a great and rich city would grow up under the peculiar patronage of the general government. This expectation has not been realized to the extent contemplated. Washington is now only a fourth rate city. It is neither

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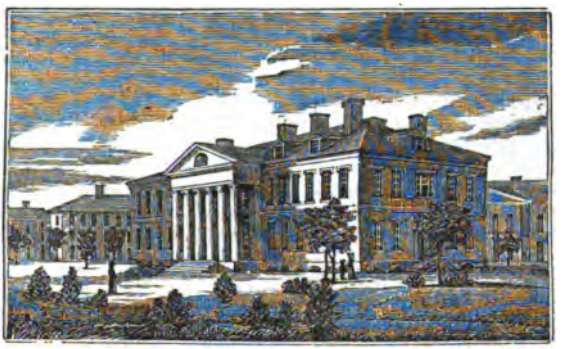
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

a place of extensive foreign commerce, nor a place where gentlemen choose to reside to enjoy the pleasures of society. In this respect, it differs from European capitals, where the splen-



Navy Department — Washington.

dors of monarchy draw around it a great portion of the national wealth. The tenure of office in the American system being during the pleasure of the Executive, places are seldom sought by men of fortune. When the temporary occupants cease to hold them, they usually retire from the city to the places of their former residence, and to their former pursuits. The national government, however, with its appendages, will always make it a considerable city. There are six banks in the District.

The District of Columbia was formed by virtue of the eighth section of the first article in the constitution, designating the powers of Congress, the sixteenth paragraph of which provides, "That Congress may exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district, not exceeding ten miles square, as may by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States." The object of this provision was that Congress might hold its sessions, and the General Government exercise its functions independent of state authorities, and undisturbed by any political changes.

The civil government of the district is an anomaly in the American system. The people are governed by laws made by a body in which they are not represented, and in the choice of which they have no voice. Coming from places remote from the district, the members of Congress are little acquainted with its circumstances and wants. Engaged in more important national concerns, they are ill qualified for its local legislation. Aware of this, Congress have permitted the municipal laws of the respective States of Virginia and Maryland, to operate in those portions of the district taken from each state. This has

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been found to be attended with embarrassment. The nature and construction of contracts, and means of enforcing them; the nature and extent of private injuries, and the means of redress, are different in different sections of the ten miles square, and among a population not exceeding that of a small county. What is criminal in one portion of the district, is not so in another.

Propositions have been before Congress to establish a local legislature, its laws being subject to revision by the national; and to grant to the district a right to a delegation in Congress, but neither have been sustained. The circumstance that the municipal government of the district, and the administration of its laws are conducted at the expense of the United States, have hitherto reconciled its inhabitants to the disfranchisement.

FLORIDA. The Florida territory, as now defined, is a narrow strip of land, extending along the gulf of Mexico, from the Perdido river to the Atlantic ocean, at the mouth of St. Mary's river, a distance of about five hundred miles, and a narrow peninsula extending into the gulf of Mexico, from the 31st to the 25th degree of latitude, four hundred miles. The average breadth of the peninsula is about one hundred and forty miles. The whole territory is computed to contain 50,000 square miles. Its population numbers 54,477, of whom 25,717 are slaves, and 817 free colored. There are four banks in the territory.

Its white population, when obtained from Spain, was about 10,000, principally settled at Pensacola and St. Augustine. This territory had at different times been in possession of France, Spain, and Great Britain; to none had it ever been of any commercial or political consequence. At the general peace of 1783, it was ceded by Great Britain to Spain, and remained a Spanish colony until 1820. During the latter part of this period, Spain exercised a feeble and precarious authority, not felt beyond the confines of the two principal towns. It became the receptacle of hostile Indians, runaway negroes, and fugitives of every description, from the United States. To Spain its possession was expensive, without profit, serving no purpose but that of annoyance. To the United States it was important only as affording security to their southern border.

In 1817, a collection of Indians and fugitive negroes, instigated and furnished by Spain, commenced a depredatory war on the southern frontier. This produced the Seminole war, so called from the principal tribe of Indians engaged in it, in which the hostile Indians and negroes were without resistance driven out of Florida, and possession taken of St. Marks and Pensacola, the two principal Spanish fortresses, by General Jackson. The fortresses were restored, and the American troops withdrawn from the territory, by order of the government. A negotiation for the purchase of Florida took place, which, in 1820, termina-

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ted in its cession to the United States, for the sum of $5,000,000, to be paid by the American government to its own citizens, in satisfaction of their claims on Spain for commercial spoliations. This acquisition was of no other importance to the United States, than as it gave them a natural and undisputed boundary on the south, and liberated that frontier from hostile incursion.

There are two rail roads in operation in Florida, one from Tallahassee to Port Leon, twenty-two miles; the other from Iola to St. Josephs, thirty miles.

The seat of government is Tallahassee; it contains the capitol and several churches and banks.

St Augustine, situated on the Atlantic shore, is the oldest city in the United States, having been founded by the Spaniards in 1565. Its mild climate makes it a favorite resort for invalids. Population, 2459.

FLORIDA WAR. The settlement of this country has been retarded by the war with the Seminole Indians; although their numbers were few, yet from their predatory mode of warfare, attacking plantations and small bodies of whites, destroying life and property, and then returning to their hiding places, among the everglades and morasses, where it is nearly impossible for the white man to pursue them, they created alarm through all the sparsely settled parts of the territory. The United States have been at great expense in maintaining troops to subdue them, some have been killed and captured, others persuaded to emigrate, and their numbers have thus been materially reduced, and their hostile dispositions checked. On the 14th of August 1842, an official announcement was made, that the Florida war had ceased.

WISCONSIN TERRITORY. Wisconsin, until the year, 1836, formed for civil purposes, a part of the late Territory of Michigan. In that year it was constituted a separate territorial government by act of Congress. Population in 1840, 30,945. The legislature consists of a council of thirteen members, elected for four years, and a house of representatives of twenty six members, elected for two years. Madison the capital is a thriving town. Milwaukie is on lake Michigan; Prairie du Chien on Mississippi river.

IOWA TERRITORY, formed the Western division of Wisconsin, until organized by Congress in 1838. The principal town is Dubuque; extensive lead mines are found in its vicinity. Population in 1840, 43,112. The soil is fertile, and the appearance of the country attractive; this territory, as well as that of Wisconsin, presents many inducements to the emigrant. There are some valuable lead mines in the vicinity of Dubuque. Burlington formerly the seat of government, on the Mississippir, was

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laid out in 1834. Forty-five thousand dollars have been appropriated by the United States, for the erection of public buildings in the town. Iowa City, on the Iowa river, is now the seat of government.

STATE DEBTS. Most of the States in the confederacy are in debt, some of them have incurred obligations for internal improvements that are really valuable, others for public works the construction of which was unwise, and which will never repay the expenses incurred; of the the eventual payment of some of these debts, there is no doubt, while other states have become so deeply involved, that the ability to pay in full seems very doubtful, the state stocks have sold at various prices, from eighteen to ninety-eight cents on the dollar, according to the probability of redemption. New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, North Carolina, and Iowa Territory, are out of debt. The indebtedness of the other states and territories, is as follows:

Maine,	$1,814,715
Massachusetts,	6,720,500
New York,	22,797,267
Pennsylvania,	36,058,772
Maryland,	15,214,761
Virginia,	6,994,307
South Carolina,	5,691,234
Georgia,	1,500,000
Alabama,	10,859,558
Mississippi,	7,000,000
Louisiana,	20,820,889
Tennessee,	3,198,166
Kentucky,	3,401,500
Ohio,	15,573,354
Indiana,	15,000,000
Illinois,	17,643,601
Missouri,	3,072,261
Arkansas,	3,176,000
Michigan,	5,611,000
Florida Territory,	4,000,000
Wisconsin Territory,	100,000
District of Columbia,	1,316,030
Total,	$207,563,915

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CHAPTER XVIII.

Republics south of the United States. Their extent. Conquest by Spain. Spanish policy towards them. Their condition before their revolution. First attempt unsuccessful. Second attempt commenced in 1810. *Its success. Proceedings of the United States regarding them; of Great Britain; of the Holy Alliance. All Spanish force driven form the continent. Condition of the Republics after the expulsion of the Spaniards. Their efforts towards self-government. Congress of Panama. How originated and constituted, and for what objects. Invitation to the United States to send delegates; on what terms, and for what purposes accepted; the result. Mexico. Texas. Guatemala. Hayti. Colonization in Hayti. Bolivia. Peru. Chili. Buenos Ayres. Simon Bolivar. Andes; their height and climate. Rivers in South America. Patagonia. Brazil. Removal of the royal family of Portugal to Brazil. Its government.*

Republics of the South. Directly south of the United States, and bordering on their territory, from the gulf of Mexico to the Pacific ocean, a distance of nearly 2000 miles, are the republics of Southern America, formerly Spanish provinces. They extend from latitude 42° north, to 40° south, a distance of 5500 miles, and embracing the whole American continent south of the United States, except Brazil, Guiana and Patagonia. Their greatest breadth from the Sabine river, on the gulf of Mexico, to California, is 1800 miles. The events which have taken place on this ground since the commencement of the present century, form an interesting portion of its history, and are well known. The causes which have produced them are little understood, and are only to be learned from a view of their past and present condition. From such a view, all surprise will cease, that the Spanish provinces have not been as successful in governing themselves as were the United States.

The inhabitants are of three original stocks. Europeans, native Indians, and African negroes. From these have proceeded a mixed race of every shade and variety of color; and designated by particular names, designed to express the quantity of European blood in each. The Spaniards had a proceeding by which they conferred on persons of color who had distinguished themselves, the privileges of the whites; this quality descended to their children, and gave rise to a new class of inhab-

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itants; negroes or mulattoes in color, and white persons as to their privileges. The mixed races improved by mixtures of white men, or nearly white, with colored women, and the offspring took the grade of their fathers. When a white woman became connected with a colored or black man, the offspring still took the grade of their father, and were called back steps. The mixed race was the most numerous, but excluded by the Spanish government from all participation in its affairs. The whole population is variously estimated from twelve to fifteen millions, of which the native Indians not subject to Spanish laws, constitute about one half. They are a grade higher in civilization and intelligence, than those of the north. Their ingenuity discovers itself in the various means adopted in taking fish, and in constructing bridges across their principal streams.

Indians crossing a floating Bridge.

SPANISH CONQUEST AND GOVERNMENT. The American continent first became known to Europeans by the discovery of Columbus, in 1492; acting under the Spanish authority, and endeavoring to reach the eastern border of Asia, by sailing west from Europe. The history of the conquest of this portion of America in the succeeding century, exhibits little else but a continued series of perfidy, plunder, and massacre, on the part of the Spanish adventurers. The conquest was followed by a colonial system, rigid and exclusive beyond measure, having for its sole object the benefit of the parent country. All intercourse with foreigners, either political or commercial, was prohibited under severe penalties, extending, in many cases, to death. All manufactures, and even the productions of the soil,

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which it was convenient for Spain to furnish, were prohibited. The colonies were not allowed even the semblance of self-government, but were governed by viceroys and their subordinates, sent from Spain to enforce a code of laws made by a junto, called the council of the Indies, unacquainted with the condition and wants of the people. The country was divided without any definite boundaries, into such provinces and vice royalties as suited the convenience of the governors. The great object of the Spanish government and its agents was, to enrich themselves from the gold and silver mines with which the country abounded.

REVOLUTION. It was impossible for the Spanish government with all its vigilance, to conceal from the knowledge of their colonists, the political revolutions taking place in the last half of the eighteenth century, in both hemispheres. The successful issue of the American revolution became known to them, and made a deep impression. An ill conducted and unsuccessful attempt to revolutionize some of the northern provinces, was undertaken by Miranda, a native of Caraccas, in 1806. An expedition, of which he was the leader, was fitted out at New York consisting of two or three hundred desperate adventurers, partly foreigners, and partly Americans, which terminated in their destruction. The severity exercised upon the followers of Miranda, who were captured, some of them being immediately executed as traitors, and others subject to perpetual confinement to hard labor in the mines, nearly extinguished the revo lutionary flame in the north. In 1810, the same spirit broke out in Buenos Ayres, which, being conducted with more prudence and skill, was ultimately successful. It gradually extended over the whole of Spanish America. The struggle was arduous, and continued with various success for thirteen years, and terminated in the expulsion of every hostile Spaniard from the continent.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE AMERICAN GOVERNMENT. The American government and people, viewed these events with deep interest. Their feelings and wishes were all in favor of the colonists; but the principles of neutrality were strictly observed, and Spain had little occasion to complain of the interference of the government or its citizens. The fate of the unfortunate Americans engaged in Miranda's expedition, was remembered, and operated to deter other adventurers from engaging in contests not their own. In the progress of these events, confidential agents were employed by the American executive, to ascertain their nature and extent, and whether likely to terminate in rebellion or revolution. On their report, the government became satisfied that the colonists would prevail, and that it was proper to acknowledge them as independent states. The

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American government was the first to receive them into the family of nations, and to establish the accustomed diplomatic relations.

During the South American revolution, the Spanish home government underwent a series of changes, from an absolute to a limited monarchy, and back to a bigoted despotism. From a Bourbon to a Bonaparte dynasty, and back to the Bourbon. In every change, the Spanish government was uniform in bending all its disposable force to the subjugation of the colonies. The government, however, requiring most of its soldiers for its own support, was unable successfully to exert itself against the liberties of the provinces.

These events were of high importance to the United States, both in a political and commercial view. In the former it was considered as an extension of the American system of civil policy over a great portion of the western continent, thereby adding to its stability, and laying the foundation for its universal spread. The liberation of the Spanish provinces, together with the simultaneous separation of Brazil from Portugal, put an end to European colonization on the American continent, with the exception of the British possessions on its northern border.

In this view, the American government, under the presidency of Mr. Monroe, on occasion of an attempted interference of the holy alliance, to re-unite Spain and her colonies, declared in a firm and decided tone, "that it would admit of no such interference; and that it would permit no ulterior colonization in any part of the American continent by European powers, and that they should consider any attempt on the part of those powers to extend the system of national interference to any portion of the western hemisphere, dangerous to their peace and safety; and that any interposition on the part of any European power, for the purpose of controlling in any measure the governments of America, which had established their independence, would be considered as a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States."

In a commercial view, the liberation of Spanish America was full of interest. It opened a new and extensive field of enterprize. The exchange would naturally consist of the manufactures and other surplus productions of the United States, for the gold and silver, and other valuable commodities of the new republics. They, not having any marine, would naturally depend upon the United States to be their carriers, not only in the trade between the two countries, but in their intercourse with other nations, and in this way give employment and extension to American navigation.

OF THE BRITISH. Great Britain entertaining the same views as to her commercial interests, her political scruples and predi-

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lections gave way; and she uniformly favored the efforts of the colonies; sent commercial agents among them at an early period, and was the second to acknowledge their independence. The other European powers, comprehending the holy alliance and its dependents, were as uniformly opposed to the success of the colonies. These powers look with an instinctive dread upon the exertions of man, in every part of the world to obtain a portion of civil liberty. They gave Spain their early countenance and support in the struggle, and but for the forcible remonstrances of the American and British governments against their interference, they would have aided Spain with a force sufficient to have crushed the colonies.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE REPUBLICS. The expulsion of the Spanish arms from their territory, was but the beginning of the labors of the southern republics. This war of independence had been conducted on their part, without any concerted plan of union, each fighting its own battles, on its own account, at its own expense, and for the defence of its own territory, and only occasionally assisting its neighbor, according to its own views of its interest. There was then no common war debt to be extinguished or provided for from a common fund. Each had to provide for its own. On the dissolution of the Spanish government, the colonists were in a state of nature, that is without a civil government, and they had to make the experiment, always a critical and hazardous one, that of governing themselves; and to determine the question, whether they could do it peaceably, and upon the principles of rational political liberty. To a favorable result of this experiment, there were many drawbacks.

As a whole, the population was in a state of deplorable ignorance; what knowledge they had, civil, political, or religious, was in the possession of the Roman Catholic clergy, who imparted it sparingly to the people. It had been the uniform policy of the Spanish authorities to keep the people in ignorance, as being in that condition more easily moulded to their will. The inhabitants had never taken any part in the affairs of civil government. Trials by jury, meetings of the people in primary assemblies for civil purposes, and representative bodies, were alike unknown. The people were of different shades of color, from the European born white, and the creole, down to the African black, each grade claiming distinction in proportion to its approach to the European white, the darker shades at all times struggling against this distinction. The boundaries of the different provinces were undefined. No rules existed by which it could be determined what portion of a given section of the country should constitute a separate republic; each principal colony endeavoring to draw within its jurisdiction as much as possible of the surrounding territory.

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Constitutions were formed by several of the republics on the models of those in the United States, and disregarded, and overthrown, almost as soon as formed, by military usurpations. Their history from the period of their emancipation to the present time, exhibits an almost uninterrupted series of intestine divisions and civil wars. One military chieftain has risen up after another, and under the deceptive garb of patriotism, assumed a dictatorial power, and shown how feeble a barrier a paper constitution furnishes against the strides of ambition.

One principle pervades the southern republics, that the Roman Catholic is the only true religion, and must be established by law, as the religion of the state, with a restricted toleration to some others. In all their internal revolutions, not a voice has been raised in favor of a re-union with Spain. At one period, the Spanish Cortes, despairing of the conquest, offered them a participation in the national government by a representation in that body. This was rejected as deceptive, conferring on them only a shadow of power and independence. It should also be noticed, that they abolished personal slavery.

CONGRESS OF PANAMA. Immediately after the expulsion of the Spaniards, Simon Bolivar, who in the later periods of the revolution was the most prominent military character, attempted a federal union of these disjointed communities, something on the principles of the North American republic. In 1823, as president of the republic of Colombia, he invited the governments of Mexico, Peru, Chili, and Buenos Ayres, to send delegates to the isthmus of Panama, or wherever else they should think proper, to constitute a Congress, to treat of matters of general interest to the republics. Mexico and Peru acceded to this proposition; but Buenos Ayres and Chili showed no inclination to take part in such a measure.

In December, 1824, Bolivar sent a circular to each of the republics, recapitulating what had been done, and proposing another meeting. Accordingly, in June, 1826, delegates from Colombia, Mexico, Peru, and Guatemala, a little republic, sometimes calling itself Central America, embracing the isthmus of Darien, and some adjacent territories, assembled at Panama, the principal town and port of Guatemala, bordering on the Pacific ocean. The important republics of Buenos Ayres and Chili continued to hold back, apprehending Bolivar's object to be, to incorporate the republics into one empire, of which he was to be the head. To this Congress, thus constituted, the United States were pressingly invited to send delegates. President Adams' answer to the first application was, "that the powers, and the objects of such a meeting ought first to be definitely settled, and when that was done, if there appeared to be any objects in which the United States had an interest, he would readily accede." This answer produced a more definite speci-

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fication of objects, and a second invitation to attend. The objects were defined to be:

To form a permanent council to serve as a bond of union against common danger from abroad. To preserve internal peace among the several States. To interpret treaties between the States, and to mediate in all disputes, and to regulate foreign intercourse.

With the last of these objects only had the United States any concern. To this second invitation the president acceded, restricting the delegation to act only in a diplomatic character; not to become members of the Congress, or to take any part in their internal concerns, other than to give advice and information when requested.

The objects of this mission on the part of the United States were, to settle the principles of international law and to regulate their intercourse with the republics of the south; to embody the principles of American republicanism in an imposing form, as a counterpoise to the European alliance of kings for the support of monarchy; and to abolish privateering and other usages of war inconsistent with private rights, and with the improvements of the age. Three distinguished American citizens were appointed by the president, in the recess of the Senate, to attend this Congress. The meeting being appointed to be held near the equator, in an unhealthy region, at the summer solstice, the North American delegates were in no haste to attend. One of them died before the meeting of Congress, and the other two did not arrive in season to attend. The Congress, after passing some resolutions relating to their internal affairs, adjourned to meet at Tacubaya, a village four miles from the city of Mexico, in the February following. No meeting was ever held upon this adjournment. One of the delegates from the United States set out on his mission, but came back, and as was quaintly expressed, made a return of *non est inventus* on his commission. The States remained in their original disjointed and feeble condition.

MEXICO. In their present unsettled state, nothing definite can be said relative to their respective boundaries, or the nature of their government. It is not yet ascertained into how many republics they may be divided, or whether any or all of them will long retain that name.

The most important of these republics, and the only one wholly in North America, is Mexico, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, on the southern border of the United States. Its capital city, Mexico, is on an elevated plateau, 7400 feet above the level of the ocean, in latitude 19° north, and two hundred miles west of Vera Cruz, its nearest port on the Atlantic. It is a place of great wealth, and celebrated for the magnificence of its public buildings; the great square contains several

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among which is the grand cathedral; a front view of this superb edifice is given in the annexed engraving.

Great Square of Mexico.

It is the seat of the Mexican government, and of an extensive commerce between Vera Cruz on the Atlantic, and Acapulco on the Pacific coast. Population, 170,000

The gold and silver mines of Mexico, constitute its principal wealth. The coinage from 1796 to 1810, while under the Spanish dominion, was $342,114,285, being an average of $24,000,000 a year. In the succeeding period of fifteen years, the coinage was only $153,276,972, or about $10,000,000 annually; the diminution owing no doubt to the disturbed state of the country.

The Mexican States, at the close of the contest with Spain, consisted of twenty-four distinct territories, containing 9.000,000 of inhabitants, one half of whom were native Indians; the other Spaniards, negroes, and a mixture of every color, description, and grade. Each territory had the management of its internal concerns.

In 1824, the States attempted to form a federal union, upon the principles of the American constitution. One of its leading features was, that every male 18 years of age should be a voter, and a candidate for office, without distinction of property or color. Since their emancipation, the Mexican States have undergone various revolutions, and been generally governed by a military despot under an imposing republican name. A. L. De Santa Anna is the President of the Mexican Republic.

TEXAS. Texas is the most eastern of the Mexican States, commencing at the Sabine river, the western boundary of Louisiana, and extending on the gulf of Mexico to the Rio del Norte, a distance of 500 miles. Its western boundary, separating it from the other Mexican States, is an undefined wilderness. Its medium length from north to south, between 27° and

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35° north latitude, is 540 miles, and breadth 460, containing 150,000 square miles. Much of the land is fertile, producing in the south, cotton, sugar, and rice, and in all parts, grain and tobacco. Until within a few years, almost the whole territory has been in a wilderness state. Recently, a Mexican legislature made grants to eight or ten individuals called empressories or contractors, of different portions of territory, comprehending most of its valuable lands, and emigrants in considerable numbers have settled on them. These emigrants were mostly from the United States. They had not resided long in Texas before they resisted the Mexican authorities; they were quite successful in several engagements, and soon accomplished their object—that of becoming a separate power.

Texas now exists as a republic, and her independence has been acknowledged by the United States. In March 1836, a constitution was adopted, which in its essential features resembles that of the United States. General Houston has been elected president of the republic, and the first Congress met in October, 1836. The seat of government is Houston. The population of Texas amounts to about 250,000.

GUATEMALA AND COLOMBIA. Next to the south of Mexico is a small territory calling itself the republic of central America, or Guatemala. Near its north-western border is the isthmus of Darien, connecting North and South America. At its narrowest point, the oceans approach each other within thirty-seven miles.

This republic holds a feeble and precarious existence, dependent on the forbearance of Mexico and Colombia. The latter name designates a number of large districts, sometimes associated together, and sometimes at war with each other. Bogota, near the centre, is a considerable city, and the seat of government. Its two principal Atlantic ports are Laguira and Porto Cabello, from which are exported annually about $2,000,000, two thirds of which are to the United States. The imports to the same places average $3,000,000 annually.

Next south of Colombia, are the republics of Peru and Chili, on the Pacific ocean. Upper or southern Peru was taken off to form the republic of Bolivia.

HAYTI. The island of Hayti one of the largest of the Antilles, or West Indies, lies between latitude 18° and 20° north, is 400 miles from east to west, and 150 in breadth, containing a superficies of thirty thousand square miles. and one million of inhabitants. It was called Hayti by the native Indians, from its being mountainous. Hispaniola, or Little Spain, by Columbus, being one of the first of his American discoveries, and St. Domingo by the English, from one of its principal ports. Its staples are coffee and sugar. Thirty-eight million pounds of coffee

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and one million of sugar are annually exported, of the estimated value of eight millions of dollars.

Previous to the French revolution, the western part of the island belonged to France, and the eastern to Spain; at an early period of the war between France and Spain, the former became possessed of the whole island. In consequence of the promulgation of the French doctrines of liberty and equality, an insurrection took place in 1773, which ended in the massacre or expulsion of every white inhabitant. It then became an independent nation of blacks, most of whom had been slaves. Several attempts were made at different periods, to re-possess the island, by the French, but without success. The last was in 1801, by Bonaparte, who sent an army of twenty thousand men, under Le Clerc, for that purpose. The climate, together with some sudden and irregular attacks from the negroes, effectually subdued this force, and a miserable remnant only, lived to return. Since Hayti has become independent, a free and mutually advantageous trade has been opened with the United States, and successively with other nations. Hayti having no marine, its customers enjoy all the benefits of the carrying trade.

After the expulsion of the whites, rival black chiefs kept up a state of civil war for a considerable time, and at length the whole island settled down in a kind of regular republican government, under president Boyer. The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives; the former are chosen for nine years, from a list made out by the president, and consists of twenty-four persons. The house of representatives are chosen for five years, and consists of one from each commune or department, and two from each of the principal cities. The president is chosen for life, by the senate. The present chief magistrate, Boyer, enjoys a high degree of popularity. Justice is well administered, according to the general principles of the French code; and the government has, of late years, assumed and orderly course. A college is established at Cape Haytien, formerly cape Francois, where a liberal course of instruction is pursued, and scarcely any considerable village is without a common school.

Hayti is remarkable for being the place of the first European settlement in America, and the first and only independent nation formed from African slaves. Little expectation was entertained in the first stages of the experiment, that they would be able to form and maintain any thing like a regular republican government. In self-government, they have exceeded in principle and practice, the South American republics. They have have repeatedly sought to be admitted into the family of nations, and to the accustomed diplomatic relations. They have maintained their independence forty years; their trade is advantageous, and eagerly sought after by other nations; and no possible objection has been found to exist against their claim, but

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that of color. This, though not openly made, has been found to be insurmountable, affording a practical demonstration, that the present state of public opinion is opposed to any amalgamation, either social or political, with the African race. The population of Hayti is 933,000.

On the 7th of May 1842, a great earthquake took place in the island, by which the whole town of Cape Haytien was destroyed, and it is supposed that 7000 persons lost their lives. Santiago, about 60 miles distant in the interior, was entirely destroyed, and 500 of its citizens killed.

COLONIZATION IN HAYTI. At an early period of the American colonization society, another association was formed at New York, having the same general object in view, that of removing the free blacks from the United States. The purpose of this society was to establish them at Hayti. This did not meet the approbation of the south, because it was too near the southern portion of the United States. The plan, however, was pursued, and application made to the government of Hayti for the grant or purchase of a territory on the island, where their colored brethren in the United States might be colonized, and form a distinct government. The answer to this application was, that there could be but one government in Hayti; that colored emigrants from the United States, would be kindly received, and should be furnished with lands to any desired amount, on reasonable terms, and admitted to all the privileges of native citizens. A considerable emigration took place under this provision; the emigrants finding that subsistence was to be obtained there only by industry and frugality, returned in considerable numbers, and further emigration ceased. In 1825, president Boyer purchased an acknowledgment of the independence of Hayti from France, at the expense of $27,600,000, to be paid as an indemnification to the ex-colonists, and stipulating at the same time, to grant some exclusive commercial privileges to the French nation.

BUENOS AYRES. The republic called the United Provinces of South America, lies on the Atlantic ocean, and is separated from Chili by the Andes. It is composed of a number of Spanish audiences or judicial districts. Its capital, Buenos Ayres, a name often used to denote the whole republic, is situated on the southern bank of the river La Plata, 200 miles from its mouth, in latitude 34° south. It has a population of 80,000, and a great commerce with the United States. None of these republics have any naval establishment, and very little of a commercial marine. The trade is carried on in foreign bottoms; a circumstance which very much enhances its value to the United States. Their military force is such as each republic occasionally calls into service to defend itself, or to make acquisition of

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territory. The gold and silver mines of these republics, especially of Mexico, Peru, and Chili, are the richest in the world, and for the last three centuries, have been the most considerable source of supply. The quantity in circulation has within that time quadrupled, not thereby increasing in that proportion the real wealth, or adding to the value of property, but raising the prices of every commodity.

The political condition of these republics, after the expulsion of the Spaniards, resembles, in many points, that of the United States from 1783 to 1788, and exhibits a striking example of what the latter probably would have been, but for the exalted patriotism and integrity of one man. During that period of anarchy, General Washington was repeatedly urged by some of his military friends, to establish what they called a strong government, meaning thereby a military despotism, of which he should be the head, and themselves important actors. They endeavored to persuade him not to take any part in the federal convention of 1787, believing and hoping that that measure would prove abortive, and calculating to establish their own plan on its failure. They wished him not to impair his influence, by being engaged in a scheme which they supposed would fail. General Washington, unmoved by these schemes of grandeur, thought differently, and took a different course, the results of which can hardly be appreciated.

SIMON BOLIVAR. This revolution brought into view several distinguished military characters, of whom Simon Bolivar, who has been already noticed, is the most prominent. He was born at Caraccas, one of the principal cities of the republic of Columbia, in July, 1783. He received the rudiments of an education, such as Spanish America afforded, in his native city, and completed his studies at Madrid. After spending some time in travelling in Europe, he returned to Caraccas by the way of the United States, and immediately became an active partizan in the revolution. He rapidly passed through several military grades to the chief command of the republican armies, and succeeded in the final expulsion of the Spaniards from continental America. Considering his means, his character will not suffer by a comparison with any succesful general of ancient or modern times. After the success of his arms had rendered the independence of Spanish America no longer doubtful, he undertook the management of its civil concerns. In June, 1825, he visited Upper or Southern Peru, which had detached itself from the adjacent republics, and formed a new one under the name of Bolivia, in honor of Bolivar, who was now styled Liberator, and declared its perpetual protector. At the request of this new republic, he drew up a constitution, which was presented by him, and adopted by the constituent congress of Bolivia, in 1826. With some inconvenient provisions for constituting a

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legislature through the medium of electors to be designated by the people, it vests the supreme power in a president for life, who commands all its forces, and enjoys all the patronage of the government, nominating all the civil and military officers of the state, foreign ministers, and a vice president, who is to be his successor. These powers are to be exercised at pleasure, and without responsibility. Constitutions on similar principles were projected and adopted for Colombia and Peru; and Bolivar placed at the head of the latter. His efforts to form a general confederacy have already been noticed. His general conduct and the complexion of these constitutions, gave alarm to the friends of rational liberty, and created him many enemies. Attempts were made to assassinate him. He retired a short time to private life; but soon afterwards assumed the government of Colombia, conferred upon him in unrestricted terms by a congress assembled at Bogota. He died soon after this assumption of power, without a development of his political talents or character.

The foregoing, with many variations, is a specimen of the constitutions of these republics, and of the manner in which their governments have been conducted by their military chiefs. The fatal error of trusting their civil concerns in the hands of a successful general, merely on account of his fame as a soldier, is common to them all; as is also the abuse of that power in the hands of the trustee.

ANDES. The Andes, the highest mountains in the world, extend through South America, from north to south, nearly its whole length; and generally from twenty to to forty miles from the shores of the Pacific. The most elevated point is in Quito, near the equator; it rises 19,000 feet above the level of the sea, and exceeds any of the highest mountains in Europe. The village of Antistana, on a plateau on one of the peaks, is 13,500 feet above tide water, and the highest inhabited spot on the earth.

On these mountains in the equatorial regions, the climate and the productions of the soil are regulated by the ascent, and exhibit every variety, from the tropical heats, to the region of perpetual winter. The highest point of vegetation, bordering on perpetual snow, under the equator, is 14,760 feet above the level of the ocean.

Some of the most difficult passes are between Brazil and Peru, and rise to nearly four miles in height above the level of the sea. In some parts are men carriers, who make it their business to carry passengers up the most steep and difficult parts, in a kind of chair fastened to their backs; but in general, the passage is made by travellers on the patient and sure-footed mule.

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Mountain travelling in South America.

The eastern declivity of the Andes gives rise to three large rivers; the Oronoco which empties into the Atlantic in Colombia, in latitude 9° north; the Amazon, the mouth of which is at the equator, and the La Plata, which discharges itself in latitude 35° south. The western declivity being near the ocean, has no permanent streams, but only occasional mountain torrents.

PATAGONIA. South of the republics, is the country of Patagonia, extending across the continent, and from latitude 35° to 54° south, eleven hundred miles. It is noticeable for never having been thought worth the occupation of any European power, and for never having been the subject of controversy or war. It is also noted for being the land of fabled giants. Early navigators touching at the shores of Patagonia, reported stories of a race of men from seven to ten feet in height, and of proportionable bulk. These stories, generally credited at first, have disappeared in consequence of more recent examinations. The country is thinly inhabited by a race of savages, of the ordinary size and character.

Patagonia is separated from Terra del Fuego by the straits of Magellan, of difficult and dangerous navigation. The usual and safest course to the Pacific, is to the south of the group of islands of which this is the principal. Cape Horn, the southern extremity of Terra del Fuego, is in latitude 56° south; from thence to the south pole, so far as has been discovered, it is water, with the exception of some uninhabited islands. In this region American enterprize has been successfully engaged in

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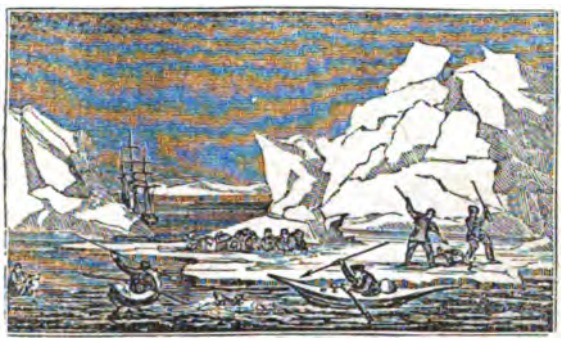
taking seals. These animals are amphibious, and are here found in herds, and in great plenty. The common size of the animal is about three feet in length, resembling in part a fish, and in part a dog, and is sometimes called a sea dog. Their



Seal Catching.

oil and skins have become important articles of commerce, more particularly the latter, which are extensively used in saddlery, cap and trunk making.

BRAZIL. The principal remaining country of South America, is the empire of Brazil, extending from the equator to latitude 32° south, on the Atlantic coast, and bordering in every other part, on the new republics, comprehending about one half of this section of the continent. It was a Portuguese colony from 1500, the time of its discovery and conquest by Portugal, until 1808. It had then become superior in strength and wealth to the parent state, its superficies exceeding it more than twenty fold. A French invasion in that year, drove the reigning family and the court of Portugal, from Lisbon to Rio Janeiro. From that time, Brazil became the principal, and Portugal the secondary state. Its commerce which had, until that time, been regulated by rigid colonial principles, was opened to all nations. Its government took the form of a limited monarchy, and the name of the empire of Brazil, the head of the reigning family of Portugal, John VI. being the first emperor. From that period, the wealth, population, and importance of Brazil, rapidly increased. In 1821, John returned to Portugal, leaving his eldest son, (Don Pedro) regent; who, on the death of his father, became the second emperor of Brazil. The population amounts to 5,000,000. Rio Janeiro, on the Atlantic, in latitude 23° south is its principal city and seaport. Before the revolution it had a population of fifty thousand; it now amounts to one hundred and sixty thousand.

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Rio Janeiro.

The city of St. Paulo, in the interior, situated on an eminence rising out of an extensive plain, is surrounded on three sides by meadow land, and is washed by several streams at its base, near which they unite and form the river Tiete. Its climate is said to be one of the most pure and healthy in the world. It contains a population of 30,000.

City of St. Paulo — Brazil.

GUIANA. A small territory on the north of Brazil, called Guiana, is the only part of South America subject to European colonization. The south-eastern part, under the name of Cayenne, is subject to France, and is noted for being the place to

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which the republicans of that nation at one period banished their political enemies. Adjoining it on the west is the Dutch colony of Surinam, and still farther west are the English possessions of Demerara and Essequibo, formerly taken from the Dutch.

Although South America is distinguished for the salubrity of its climate, the value of its productions, and other natural advantages, we still find the people devoid of enterprize, uneducated, and in an unsettled political condition, while the United States is celebrated for its rapid advance in population, intelligence, and all that contributes to the greatness of a country. Without entering into an examination of the causes which produce this marked difference in the inhabitants of the American continent, the citizen of the United States may well rejoice that Providence has placed him amid institutions which guard and protect his rights, and with a people celebrated for their virtue, their enterprize, and attainments in knowledge, diffused throughout the whole mass, to an unexampled extent.

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CHAPTER XIX.

Oceanica, embracing the islands of the Pacific and Indian oceans, as the fifth division of the world. Classes of inhabitants. Religion. Governments. Geographical position. Distances. Sumatra. Its situation and extent. Pepper plant. Camphor. Java in possession of the Dutch. Its productions. Batavia. The Upas tree. Borneo. Moluccas, or Spice islands. Cloves and nutmegs; how produced. Amboyna. Dutch monopolies. Introduction of spices into Europe. Philippine islands. Spanish establishment. Character of the inhabitants. Trade. Jesuit missions. Polynesia, or Eastern Oceanica. Whale fishery in the Pacific. Friendly islands. Society islands. English missionaries. Marquesas. Commodore Porter's possession of them. Their number and population. Sandwich islands; their number, situation, and population. Present importance. Condition in 1820. Success of American missions. Southern Polynesia. New Zealand. New Holland and Van Dieman's land.

OCEANICA. The four quarters of the globe, Europe, Asia, Africa and America, with their adjacent and connected islands, the present condition of which has been sketched in the foregoing chapters, comprehend the whole of what former geographers have described as the habitable earth. Later discoveries have brought into view Australia, Van Dieman's land, and several hundred other islands in the Pacific and Indian oceans, inhabited by numerous people, having no political connexion with either continent; this has led to a fifth division, termed by modern geographers, Oceanica or Polynesia.

These great oceans form but one body of water, extending from the western coast of America, to the eastern and southern border of the eastern continent, and as far as researches can be made, from the north to the south pole; the eastern and northern division is called the Pacific, and the southern, the Indian ocean.

They cover more than one third of the globe, and present as large a surface at least, as both continents. They contain in every direction groups of islands of every size, description and character. The islands, as far as they have been explored, which are capable of furnishing any sustenance, are inhabited. The number, size and population of these islands are not known. Their whole number of inhabitants has been estimated at 20,000,000. In some of them, different European nations have

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permanent trading establishments, and exercise jurisdiction over a portion of the territory. With such islands, the trade is under the exclusive control of the power possessing the establishment. At others, there are temporary residents of different powers; the trade of such islands is free to all. In the greater number of them there are neither permanent nor temporary residents. Such have been only occasionally visited by European and American navigators. It is supposed that there are still great numbers which have never been discovered.

One of the most valuable productions of the islands, is the bread fruit tree. It grows to the height of forty feet; its fruit is the size of a child's head, and when gathered before it is fully ripe, and baked, it becomes a wholesome bread like that produced from wheaten flour. It bears fruit for eight months in succession, and the produce of three trees is sufficient for one person a year. The trunk is used for building cottages and boats; the inner bark for manufacturing cloth; the leaves for napkins, and its glutinous juice for cement. The palm tree is another valuable production, common to most of the islands. It presents a long, straight body, to a great height without limbs, crowned at the top with a load of leaves, arranged in circles, one above another, yielding flowers and fruit. The trunk produces a hard and heavy wood; materials for wadding, ropes, and cordage are obtained from its fibres. The leaves also serve for fans, parasols, and paper. The cocoa, a species of the palm, furnishes a delicious fruit, enclosed in a shell, which supplies the place of a cup. The milky liquid found in its cavity may be converted into wine, vinegar, or alcohol; and from the same fruit oil is produced.

Classes of Inhabitants. The inhabitants are of two distinct races or stocks, the Malay and the negro. The former is much the most numerous, and constitute the mass of the population on the islands near to, and north of, the equator. There is a considerable variety of complexion, the fairest being on the northerly and westerly islands, all, however, having a dark, tawny cast. European and American visiters give them, generally, the character of thieves and robbers, openly plundering where they have courage, and stealing where they have not. In the intercourse between the islanders and such visiters, the balance of wrong is on the side of the latter. Their object is to obtain from the islands which they visit, such articles as they want, at the cheapest rate possible. Intelligence, and every other advantage, is on their side, and which they never fail to improve. The instances of massacre and plunder which occur, and they are not unfrequent, are generally owing to some abuse on the part of the visiter. The general similarity of language, customs, manners and government of the inhabitants, constitute them one class of people, and afford evidence of a common ori-

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gin, though they have no political connexion, and their extremes are several thousand miles apart.

RELIGION. Their religion, excepting where Mahometanism has made some impression, or where missionaries have succeeded in introducing Christianity, is idolatry, or Fetichism, in its most disgusting forms, sometimes requiring human sacrifices. The dead chiefs are regarded as divinities, to whom the priests address their prayers. Their skulls are deposited in boxes, and kept in the houses of the principal inhabitants. In common with nearly all the human race, they believe in a future state. They divide it into heaven and hell, and assign to the latter such as have been killed and eaten by their enemies, and such as have come to their end by violence. Heaven, or a state of comfort and happiness, and well supplied with what they esteem good things here, is the general residence of all others. They hold human life in little estimation, admitting it to be taken away on many occasions.

In Otaheite, and some other of the islands, the society of Arreoy forms a singular and disgusting feature in their manners. Clubs of men and women associate for the purpose of debauchery and infanticide. By the constitution, or the fundamental laws of the society, the women are common, and infants, the consequence of this intercourse, are put to death as soon as born. The customary mode of salutation is by taking the hand or foot of the friend saluted, and rubbing it across the face.

ORIGIN OF THE INHABITANTS. The distance between the Moluccas, on the extreme west, and the Society islands on the east, is upwards of 7000 miles. The spaces between the different groups, and between some of them and any continent, is much too great to be passed by any navigation with which the present inhabitants appear to be acquainted; and yet the similarity in all the important points of national character, is so great as to indicate a common origin. These circumstances have given rise to ingenious speculations on the questions, how these islands became inhabited at all, and how there should be this coincidence of character. Malte Brun solves the difficulty by supposing that these people once formed a great nation, possessing maritime habits, and much greater skill in navigation than their descendants of the present age. This hypothesis, unsupported by any historical facts or traditions, and attended with many difficulties, may stand until a better one can be found to take its place.

LONGITUDE FROM WASHINGTON. Leaving these questions among the many things which yet remain unknown, our business is with their present condition. They are nearly on the opposite side of the globe to the United States, and yet such is the effect of commerce, that some of their productions enter

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into the composition of the daily food of most of their citizens. The 180th degree of longitude from the city of Washington, being its anti-meridian, passes through Sumatra, one of the largest and most westerly of the Oceanic islands, and extending it northerly, it passes through Siam, and crosses the 39th parallel of latitude, being that of the city of Washington, near Pekin, on the northern border of China. Midnight, on this meridian, corresponds with noon at the capitol; and should two persons set out, and travel at the same time, and with equal speed in opposite directions, the one east and the other west, they would differ one day in their computation of time, at their meeting, the one having lost and the other gained half a day. This result was exemplified in the meeting of the British and American missionaries in this region, in relation to the Sabbath. The Americans, proceeding westerly by the way of Cape Horn, had their Sabbath on the Monday of the British, who proceeded easterly by the Cape of Good Hope. Both were right in their computation, but which day the islanders were to observe, was matter of curious inquiry.

SUMATRA. Sumatra, Java, Borneo, and the Moluccas, are on and near the equator, and are the region of spices. The most abundant native commodity, and the chief object of commerce in Sumatra, is the black pepper. The plant producing it is a vine, which begins to be productive in the third year, and continues until the twentieth. It is a climbing plant, and supported by a pole or tree set by the side of it, giving to the pepper grounds of Sumatra, the appearance of the hop-fields of more northern climates.

Black pepper, the produce of this vine, forms an extensive branch of commerce; it was formerly monopolized by the Portuguese, but is now open to all nations. Upwards of two millions of pounds are annually imported into the United States, the greater part of which is exported, leaving for home consumption, about 200,000 pounds. Camphor is another important production, and is found in the form of crystals in the body of the camphor tree. This tree grows spontaneously in Sumatra, to the size of a large timber tree. This island is about 1000 miles in length, and 150 in breadth; and is separated from Java on the south by the straits of Sunda. The equator divides it obliquely into nearly equal parts.

JAVA. Java is considered as a Dutch possession, that nation having an important establishment on the island, and the control of its commerce, but they exercise no jurisdiction over the interior; their government being confined to their own citizens, and to their principal towns and port. It is the most populous and productive of the East India islands. The number of inhabitants is not known with any degree of certainty; it is estima-

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ted from 2,000,000 to 5,000,000. It produces 10,000,000 pounds of sugar annually, and coffee, pepper, indigo, and cotton, in abundance. The principal town and port of the island is Batavia, on its north-west coast, in latitude 6° south. It is situated in a low, marshy plain, at the junction of two small rivers, navigable for boats only. Its low, stagnant waters, and hot climate, render the place extremely unhealthy, and often fatal to Europeans. The city was founded by the Dutch, in 1616, and in 1780 its population was estimated at 160,000. In 1816 it was reduced to 47,000, only 2,028 of which were Europeans, or their descendants, and this is nearly the present condition of the city.

THE UPAS. The upas tree, noted for its poisonous quality, is a production of this island. The largest grow to the height of a hundred feet, with trunks six feet in diameter at the base. Its juice flows abundantly on an incision, and is viscous and bitter. The stories which have been told of the poisonous quality of the emanations from this tree, and of the atmosphere in its neighborhood, have been greatly exaggerated. Its effluvia is dangerous to some individuals, while others are little affected by it. A powerful poison is prepared from its juice.

BORNEO. Directly north of Java is the island of Borneo; 800 miles in length, and 700 in breadth, and, next to Australia, the largest island known in the world. The equator passes nearly through its centre. Very little is known concerning its population. It is supposed to be nearly as numerous as Java, and of a ferocious character. No Europeans have ventured to explore its interior. The Dutch have some small trading establishments on its coast. Its climate, soil, and productions, are similar to those of the neighboring islands.

MOLUCCAS. To the east of Borneo, and separated from it by a narrow strait, are the Moluccas, a group appropriately called the Spice islands, of which Celebes is the principal. These islands are the native country of the clove and nutmeg. The clove tree grows to the height of about fifty feet, with long, pointed leaves, like the laurel. It commences fruit bearing at the eighth year of its growth. The fruit at its first appearance, is of a deep green, and as it ripens turns dark. When wanted for propagation, it requires to ripen three weeks longer than when designed for market; during this time, it swells to an extraordinary size, loses its spicy quality, and forms a hard shell.

The gathering, drying, and packing the fruit for market, are simple operations, in which but little care or labor is required. The nutmeg tree, in its size and general appearance, resembles the clove; the cultivation of it is much more nice and difficult, and is no where successful but in the Moluccas. The fruit, when ripe, resembles the peach, and bursting its outer shell,

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discloses the nutmeg in a coat of mace, of a fine crimson color, within which is the fruit, enclosed in a thin shell of glossy black.

AMBOYNA. Amboyna is another important island in this group, the seat of their government, and the centre of the commerce in nutmegs and cloves. It lies in latitude 4° south, and is sixty miles long. Its general aspect is pleasant, and its climate the most salubrious of the equatorial regions. The clove tree is its staple production, the island affording annually 650,000 pounds for exportation. The island contains 45,000 inhabitants.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS. The Philippine islands are directly north of the Moluccas, commencing at latitude 4° north, and extending northerly 1200 miles. They are upwards of a thousand in number, and contain a mixed population of Spanish, Creoles, Chinese, Malays, and negroes, estimated at two millions and a half. Of these, 4000 are Spanish, and 120,000 Creoles, or Mestizos, proceeding from a mixture of Spanish and native blood, of every grade. The principal island, Lucon, sometimes called Manilla, from its capital, is 400 miles in length and 100 in breadth; it contains one half of the whole population of the group. The capital is in latitude 15° north, and contains 60,000 inhabitants. It is the only port at which foreign commerce to any extent is carried on. Before the revolution in South America, the trade between these islands and Mexico, was confined to a single galleon, of about 1500 tons burden, performing one voyage each way annually, between Manilla and Acapulco, the principal seaport of Mexico on the Pacific. The Philippine islands were considered as an appendage of Mexico, and governed by a viceroy from Spain, under the direction of the governor of that province. Since that period, the trade has been open to other European nations, and to Americans. Manilla is now annually visited by upwards of fifty foreign ships. The productions of the islands, forming their exports from Manilla, are sugar, indigo, cotton, tobacco, rice, honey and pearls. The chief articles of import are wine, brandy, silk, cotton, and woollen goods, and hardware. The Philippines were first discovered by Magellan, in 1521, and received their name in honor of Philip II. king of Spain. The first settlements were not made by Spain until fifty years afterwards, when the island of Lucon was conquered, and permanent settlements commenced. The natives, except in the principal islands, can hardly be said to be subject to Spanish authority. They are governed by their own chiefs, and have their own laws and customs. The mass of native inhabitants are Malays, and possess the characteristic ferocity of that race.

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JESUIT MISSIONS. The Philippine islands were early the subject of the missionary exertions of the Jesuits, the result of which has been that a considerable portion of the inhabitants of Lucon, and some in the other islands, are Roman Catholics. Where the missionaries have not succeeded, the religion of the inhabitants is the idolatry of the east. The morals of the Spanish colonists at Manilla, are described in unfavorable colors. Chastity and decorum, as understood in Europe, are scarcely known at Manilla. The baths are used promiscuously by both sexes at the same time.

POLYNESIA. To the eastward of the islands already described, is another great division, called Polynesia, or eastern Oceanica, comprehending numerous groups, which have only been seen or partially visited by navigators. Though existing in great numbers, they have never been deemed of sufficient consequence to induce Europeans to fix permanent establishments upon them. The whale fishery of Great Britain and the United States, extending of late into the northern as well as the southern Pacific, has rendered some of these groups important, as stations where their vessels may obtain refreshments and partial supplies. The American whale fishery has been pushed into higher southern latitudes, in the Pacific, than that of any other nation, and has extended north to the coast of Japan. It is estimated that six hundred and fifty vessels from the United States are engaged in the whale fishery; tonnaging 193,000 tons, and manned by sixteen thousand officers and men; the whole value of the ships and outfit is estimated at twenty millions dollars, and the value of imports at seven millions. To this business, which is of growing importance, Polynesia, or the islands of the Pacific, are of great consequence. As the ships traverse different parts of the ocean, new groups are discovered. At some of the most frequented places there are European or American residents, who act as interpreters, and aid in the traffic. The subsistence of the natives is from the bread fruit and cocoanut tree, and from the ocean. Both sexes are expert swimmers from their infancy. Their most dreaded enemy is the shark, with which their coast abounds. When one appears, an outcry is made, and every one seeks the shore. The enemy seldom fails of securing a victim.

Fishing is an important employment, and one in which the greatest ingenuity is displayed; much of it is done in the night, as well to avoid the scorching rays of the sun, as because it is then more successful. When the moon fails them, torches are used, composed of bunches of reeds, firmly bound together. Large parties often go outside of the coral reefs, with which their islands are surrounded, presenting to a spectator on shore, a picturesque view of a long line of rocks, illuminated by their flaming torches, which the fishermen hold in one hand, and

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stand with the poised spear in the other, ready to strike as soon as a fish appears.

Polynesians Fishing by Torch-light.

Their religion consists in the worship of idols, almost without number. Their great object is to appease the anger of the gods, which is to be affected by offerings, of which they suppose that the human sacrifice is the most acceptable. They worship every thing which they believe capable of doing them harm; one of their most prominent objects is the shark. Gratitude, or thanksgiving to any invisible being, for favors received, constitutes no part of their religion. In their view, the God who made the world, takes little concern in the management of its affairs, leaving it to the influence of evil spirits, to propitiate whom is the great object of their worship.

FRIENDLY ISLANDS. A principal group is called the Friendly islands, through which the 180th degree of longitude, or the antimeridian of London passes. These islands were first discovered by Captain Cook, in 1773. They are in latitude 20° south, about 150 in number, and their population is estimated at 200,000. Captain Cook gave them the appellation of the Friendly islands, as well on account of the treatment he received, as from the harmony which appeared to subsist among themselves. They produce cocoa, bread fruit, the sugar cane, yams, and other articles for the refreshment of navigators. The inhabitants

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characterized as industrious, active, and acquainted with neither riches, want, nor oppression.

SOCIETY ISLANDS. On the same parallel of latitude, and thirty degrees of longitude to the eastward, are the Society islands. This group was discovered by Captain Cook, in his first voyage, in 1769. The principal island is Tahiti, or Otaheite, called the queen of the Pacific. It is thirty miles long, and twenty broad; the first discoverer estimated the number of inhabitants at 200,000.

Mr. Ellis, a recent traveller, who has given a particular account of all the islands in the Pacific, known under the name of Polynesia, states the inhabitants of Otaheite at only 10,000, and as being about half the number of the whole cluster. After making every allowance for the over estimate of Captain Cook, there must be a very great diminutian of inhabitants on this island, and in the group, since that time. This is imputed in a great measure, to the horrid practice of infanticide, as adopted by the society of Arreoys, and prevalent in these islands.

The moral condition of this people early attracted the attention of the benevolent societies of Great Britain. In 1797, there were eighteen English missionaries attached to an establishment at Otaheite, which had been formed there several years before. For the first fifteen years their labors were attended with little success. Embracing the Christian religion necessarily implied not only a renunciation of their idolatry, but of their immoralities. In 1814, there were only fifty natives who could in any sense be called Christians, the fruit of twenty years' labor of the missionaries. Since that time their efforts have been attended with singular success. Almost the whole of the inhabitants of this group have embraced Christianity, which have been attended with a reformation of manners, and an improved condition of the islands.

To the north of the Society islands, are the Marquesas or Washington islands, in latitude 10° south. They are five in number, and their population is estimated at 50,000. They were first discovered by a Spaniard, about the commencement of the seventeenth century, and visited by Captain Cook, in 1774.

Soon after the commencement of the war of 1812, commodore Porter, of the United States frigate Essex, was sent into the Pacific ocean, to break up the British whale fishery. Having made a number of prizes, he proceeded to this group, having before learned their position and other circumstances, from the relation of captain Ingraham, of Boston, who had lately visted them. He took possession of the principal one, called Nooahevah, in the name of the president of the United States, giving it the appellation of Madison island, and erected fort Madison, and furnished it with four guns. He deposited at the foot of his

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flag staff a copy of his formal declaration of possession, and several pieces of American coin, built a village consisting of six houses, a rope walk and a bakery. He established a friendly intercourse with the natives, obtaining from them refreshments, for some trifling articles. This intercourse was soon interrupted by the thievish practices of the natives, for which commodore Porter inflicted on them severe punishment. This island has a fine harbor to which the commodore gave the name of Massachusetts bay. The natives were poor, ignorant, thievish idolaters, living in miserable huts, and in a state of almost entire nudity. Since that time, the group has not been an object of any consideration either with Europeans or American navigators, or of missionary societies. Lieut. Paulding of the United States schooner Dolphin, cruising in the Pacific, visited this Massachusetts bay and Madison island in 1830.

The most important group yet discovered in eastern Oceanica, are the Sandwich islands, in latitude 20° north, and in longitude 90° west from Washington, nearly midway in the northern Pacific ocean, between Mexico and China. The inhabited islands are eight in number, and their population estimated at 150,000; more than half of which occupy the principal island, Owyhee. Another called Woahoo, contains 20,000 inhabitants; the principal town of which, Honolulu, is the residence of the king, of the foreign functionaries, and of twelve or fourteen foreign merchants, chiefly Americans. The town contains about 7000 people. Most of the islands are volcanic and mountainous; the highest peak is estimated to be 15,000 feet above the level of the sea. The principal vegetable productions are yams, bread fruit, cocoa-nut and strawberries; their animals are neat cattle, horses, goats, sheep and swine. The islands also produce sandal wood, a valuable article of export to China, for the use of their temples. They were discovered by captain Cook, in 1778, who lost his life at Owyhee in a quarrel with the natives, in 1779, on his return from an attempt to find a passage at the north between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. By the independence of the Spanish South American colonies, Spain lost her power of controling the trade of her East Indies, though she nominally retained their possession, their commerce under some restrictions became open to other powers. This circumstance, together with the extension of the whale fishery into the northern Pacific, as far as the coast of Japan, has rendered the Sandwich islands of late an object of much importance in a commercial view, as a place of repairs and supplies. The natives are of the Malay race, but of the highest grade of that people, well formed, of muscular limbs, and open countenances, and something above the middle stature. Their hair is black, or brown, and frequently curly, their complexion a kind of olive, and sometimes a reddish brown. Their language is a dialect of that spoken at the Society and other islands in the

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Pacific. The people are characterized as of a mild and gentle disposition, inquisitive and intelligent. This is to be considered as descriptive of them, since their intercourse with foreigners, and the introduction of Christianity. Previous to that time, they were not distinguished in these respects, from other Malays. They were then gross idolaters, and practised human sacrifices. Some short time previous to 1820, a general distrust prevailed among the islands of eastern Oceanica, relative to the efficacy, power, and real divinity of their idols. This was particularly the case in the Sandwich islands; they had at this time become distrustful of idolatry, had destroyed their images, and were seeking some other religion. In 1820, a mission was established by the American board of foreign missions, at Owyhee. The foreign residents in the islands, for commercial purposes, and merchant vessels visiting them, have been unfriendly to missionaries and their objects. Notwithstanding these obstacles, the American mission to the Sandwich islands has been attended with great success. Not only has it introduced the arts comforts and usages of civilized society to a great extent but idolatry has been destroyed and the Christian religion embraced by nearly the whole population. Missions have also been established in four other of the principal islands of the group. In the course of ten years, the inhabitants have risen from a state of barbarism and idolatry, to a state of civilization and Christianity.

The great southern division of Polynesia, or eastern Oceanica, embracing New Holland, New Guinea, New Zealand, Van Dieman's Land, and numerous other islands in the southern Pacific, is inhabited by a race of negroes, not materially differing from those on the continent. Their remoteness has saved them from slavery in America. But they are subjected to this evil by the more intelligent inhabitants of the northern islands. The nearest point of New Holland, the largest and most westerly of these islands, to the African coast, is sixty degrees of longitude east, or about 3,500 miles. The inhabitants so remote from each other, have such a resemblance in color, features, language and manners, as strongly to indicate a common origin; and yet neither nation possess any navigation except canoes of the rudest construction. The public are not possessed, as yet, of sufficient facts to afford a satisfactory solution of the questions arising from these circumstances.

The inhabitants of New Zealand, though possessed of more intelligence than those of the other islands in southern Polynesia, are among the most vicious and degraded of the human race. In common with the natives of many others, they are cannibals, considering it meritorious to feast on the flesh of their enemies. From this practice, to that of devouring the bodies of their own tribe, the transition is easy. Some attempts have been made to introduce Christianity among them, but without success.

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